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**A Comparative Study of Olympic Athlete Cultivation Systems in the People's
Republic of China and the United States of America**

By

Tan Zhang

A Thesis

**Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research
Through the Faculty of Human Kinetics
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree of Master of Human Kinetics at the
University of Windsor**

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ABSTRACT

Historical and sociological studies have revealed the disparities of sport among different countries. This study uses Bereday's (1964) model for comparative education to explore the differences in the Olympic athlete cultivation between the People's Republic of China and the United States of America.

Treating the process of athlete cultivation as a dynamic system, this study offers general descriptions of athlete cultivation in both countries; evaluates the backgrounds of the two countries from historical, political, economic, social, and cultural perspectives; identifies the most significant components of athlete cultivation; and finally explores the similarities and differences.

The discussion focuses on the studies of backgrounds, which are the causes of the current differences. Particularly, the study gives attention to the juxtaposition of a set of components that are shared by both countries related to their athlete cultivation. In all, the comparison identifies the differences that are determined by the respective background of each country and the tendency to adopt a similar cultivation system under the influence of globalization.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
Abstract.....	iii
Acknowledgements.....	iv
List of Figures.....	viii
Glossary of Abbreviations.....	ix
CHAPTER	PAGE
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
General Information about Sport in the People's Republic of China.....	1
General Information about Sport in the United States of America.....	5
The Purpose of the Study.....	7
The Problem.....	9
An Outline of the Thesis.....	10
II LITERATURE REVIEW.....	12
Sport in the People's Republic of China.....	12
Sport in the United States of America.....	22
III. METHODOLOGY.....	30
Explanation of the Research Design.....	30
Data Collection.....	34
Data Collection Instrument.....	34
Limitations.....	36
Delimitations.....	37
IV. BACKGROUND ANALYSIS.....	39
General Description of Sport in China.....	39
General Description of Sport in the United States of America.....	41
Historical Background-China Pre-1949.....	45
Historical Background-the United States of America Pre-1949.....	49
Historical Background-China Post-1949.....	54
Historical Background-the United States of America Post-1949.....	57
Economic Background-China.....	59
Economic Background-the United States of America.....	63
Political Background-China	64
Political Background-the United States of America.....	67
Social and Cultural Background-China.....	70
Social and Cultural Background-the United States of America.....	74

V. JUXTAPOSTION.....	76
Identification of Potential Athletes.....	76
Role of the Government-China.....	76
Role of the Government-USA.....	78
Motivation of Athletes.....	80
Motivation of Athletes-China.....	81
Motivation of Athletes-USA.....	83
Techniques for Potential Athletes Identification.....	85
Techniques for Potential Athlete Identification-China.....	86
Techniques for Potential Athlete Identification-USA.....	87
Approaches to Potential Athlete Identification.....	88
Approaches to Potential Athlete Identification-China.....	88
Approaches to Potential Athlete Identification-USA.....	90
Collegiate Sports.....	91
Reasons for Collegiate Sports-China.....	91
Reasons for Collegiate Sports-USA.....	93
The Procedures and Prerequisites for Admission of Student-Athlete.....	94
Procedures and Prerequisites for Admission-China.....	94
Procedures and Prerequisites for Admission-USA.....	96
Administration of Student-Athletes.....	97
Administration of Student-Athletes-China.....	97
Administration of Student-Athletes-USA.....	100
Administration and Selection of the Olympic Athletes.....	102
Administration of the Olympic Athletes-China.....	102
Administration of the Olympic Athletes-USA.....	105
Selection of Olympic Athletes-China.....	108
Selection of Olympic Athletes-USA.....	110
Funding of Training for the Olympic Games.....	111
Funding of Training for the Olympic Games-China.....	111
Funding of Training for the Olympic Games-USA.....	115
Treatment of Female Sports.....	118
Treatment of Female Sports-China.....	118
Treatment of Female Sports-USA.....	122
Drug Administration.....	125
Drug Administration-China.....	125
Drug Administration-USA.....	129
VI. COMPARASON AND DISCUSSION.....	133
Identification of Potential Athletes.....	133
Collegiate Sports.....	136
Administration and Selection of Olympic Athletes.....	139
Funding of Training for the Olympic Games.....	141
Treatment of Female Sports.....	143

Drug Administration.....	145
Personal Experiences of the Author.....	147
Conclusion.....	150
VII. REFERENCES.....	153
VIII. APPENDIX.....	167
Timeline.....	167
VITA AUCTORIS.....	169

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
1. Organizational Relationships in Chinese Sport.....	14
2. Administrative Structure of Chinese Sport.....	15
3. Organizational Structure of Shan'Xi Provincial Government.....	17
4. Chronology of Change in the Period 1979 to 1998.....	20
5. Sport in the Social Superstructure of Communist Countries.....	22
6. Four Stages of Comparative Methodology.....	31
7. 1991~1997 Governmental Financial Support for Elite Sport in China.....	62
8. Points Awarded for Standards Achieved in Official Competition.....	95
9. Admission Prerequisites and Major Selection of Student-Athletes in China.....	96
10. Levels of Sport Development.....	116
11. The Income Sources of the USOC.....	118
12. Numbers of Male and Female Competitors in Olympic Teams, 1988: Countries with Established Sports Traditions.....	119

GLOSSARY OF ABBREVIATIONS

AAU	Amateur Athletic Union
ACSF	All China Sport Federation
AIAW	Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women
COC	Chinese Olympic Committee
GTO	Sport System in Preparation for Labor and Defense
IAA	Intercollegiate Athletic Association
IOC	International Olympic Committee
NBA	National Basketball Association
NAAAA	National Association of Amateur Athletes of America
NCAA	National Collegiate Athletic Association
NSFs	National Sport Federations
NYAC	New York Athletic Club
SCPES	State Committee on Physical Education and Sport
USOC	United States Olympic Committee
YMCA	Young Men's Christian Association
YWCA	Young Women's Christian Association

Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

General Information about Sport in the People's Republic of China

Elite sports in the People's Republic of China (hereafter referred to as "China") have developed at a significant rate since the 1980s. The systematic structure that develops Olympic athletes in China was adopted from the Soviet Union during the 1950s. The Soviet structure of Olympic athlete cultivation, which was generally applied in communist countries, treats elite sports and physical education as one of the governmental functions while separating it from the formal education system. Distinguished from the commonly adopted structure in most capitalist countries, the Soviet structure was symbolized by a steep hierarchic administration, centralized governmental supervision, and a strong political orientation. From the 1950s to the 1990s, the Soviet structure proved to be highly effective during the sports rivalry between the United State of America and the Soviet Union.

Even though China adopted the system from the Soviet Union for a period lasting more than forty years, the effectiveness and efficiency of the system did not emerge in China until the beginning of the 1980s. It was during this period that Chinese athletes first presented themselves at the Twenty-Third Olympic Summer Games in Los Angeles, California. Between the 1984 Olympic Games and those staged in Sydney, Australia in 2000, Chinese athletes won eighty-two gold, ninety-one silver, and seventy-two bronze medals while competing at the Olympic Games. At the 2000 Olympic Summer Games in Sydney, China ranked third among nations with

twenty-eight gold medals. Given the excellent performance of Chinese elite athletes in international competition, the Chinese system of Olympic athlete cultivation began to attract the attention of scholars. The success of this Olympic athlete cultivation program affirmed the efficiency of the Soviet structure within a populous communist developing country.

Following the crisis of the “Cultural Revolution” (1966-1976), the Chinese government started to seek a way out of the poverty and isolation it had experienced through the execution of the Reformation and Open Door policies. The relatively new policy gradually eliminated the communist characteristics of China and facilitated the adoption of capitalist features.

First applied in the economic and diplomatic domains, the Reformation and Open Door policies adopted by the government encouraged private business to attract investment. Prior to the adoption of this policy, China was a centralized state power still under the influence of Mao Zedong. The centralization of marketing and production facilitated the consumption of goods for each citizen and effectively prevented large scale corruption within the system.

During China’s Reformation, the collision between communist ideology and capitalist ideology gave rise to a series of social conflicts and convulsions, such as the corruption of officials and increased disparity between rural and urban territories. These conflicts culminated in the “June 4th Tiananmen Affair” in 1989, at which time the Chinese government dispatched its army to suppress student protestors who were unsatisfied with the state of democracy and the perceived corruption in China.

At the same time, the collisions of ideologies also occurred in most communist countries in Eastern Europe. However, this collision of ideologies was released in a more radical manner in other Eastern European communist countries and resulted in the collapse of communism in the Soviet Union and nine other Eastern European nations. The political crisis in Eastern Europe left China politically isolated, assigning it the unofficial title of the most populous communist country out of the mainstream. This crisis of international diplomacy was the catalyst which spurred the Chinese government to accelerate the Reformation and Open Door policies in the 1990s. This, in turn, marked China's entrance into the global market as it began to adopt more capitalist features. The Chinese government released its control over business gradually. It partially allowed the market to adjust the production and consumption of goods, while giving increased authority and offering more convenience to private and foreign investors. It also initiated the reformation of the existing governmental structure, which represented a significant step in the democratization process for China.

The rapid collapse of Soviet-style communism in Eastern Europe, and the resulting collapse of the nine Eastern European nations that subscribed to it, provide an opportunity to examine "communist sports policies" and the impact they had on sports and popular perception (Riordan, 1996). The nature of sport can be expected to alter with any change to a new socio-economic foundation (Riordan, 1982). Historically, sport has been a vital tool for the formation of national identities in communist nations. Riordan (1982) has argued that in China, sport was employed for reasons of health,

hygiene, and defense, to encourage the integration of a multinational country, as well as to promote patriotism within the country. Following the collapse of Soviet-style communism, sport in China was endowed with more functions by the Reformation and Open Door policies of the government and lost some of the identifiable characteristics of communist sport due to changing domestic and international environments. Thus, the development of the elite sport system in China was influenced not only by the economic reformation, but by China's entering into the global sector. In particular, the pace of China's involvement in globalization has been greatly accelerated since its World Trade Organization (WTO) accession in 2001.

The effects of the Reformation and Open Door policies differ within their respective domains. Correspondingly, the economic and industrial domains experienced a more thorough reformation; the reformation in ideological domains, such as politics, education, and sport, lagged behind. The reformation that happened in the domain of sport resulted in the commingling of communist and capitalist sport features under the Sinitic background. Ho (2000) explained this phenomenon by stating that diversified sport experiences occur because there is no fixed pattern of choice between nations which have different needs that are synthesized into national and cultural practice. The exceptional evolution experienced in China reflects the spread of capitalist values, especially those traditionally associated with the United States.

General Information about Sport in the United State of America

The United States of America is a country which possesses the most predominant sport business pattern in the world, generating huge revenues for those individuals operating within its purview. As a result, it is considered the sport business role model by many countries. The “Big Four” sport leagues, including the National Basketball Association (NBA), the National Football League, National Hockey League, and Major League Baseball, penetrate cultural barriers and attract spectators all over the world, while at the same time generating cornucopian revenues. Furthermore, American professional sport works as a cultural vehicle that implants American values into countries with diverse historical and cultural backgrounds. The phenomenon that exports its values and ideologies into other counties, which is called “cultural colonies,” expedites the degree to which young people in other countries adopt the American social value system. This process is further amplified with the United States of America taking the dominant position from the Soviet Union in Olympic competitions since the staging of the 1992 Olympic Games in Barcelona, Spain.

While cultivating successful professional sports leagues, the United States also generated a system for intercollegiate athletics which operated at the grass-roots level of professional and Olympic sports. The National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) is largely responsible for the training of athletes for Olympic sports leading to the selection of Olympic athletes. Universities and colleges in the United States operate as talent identification and feeder systems while providing necessary training facilities and coaches. Identified athletes can receive higher education and professional

training; common students also have a chance to experience and enjoy competitive sports during their collegiate studies.

The most remarkable feature of collegiate sports in the United States is its mechanism to generate profits through extensive collegiate sports competitions, which in the large markets generally attract the same public attention as professional sports competitions. With the allocation of profits made by popular collegiate sports, such as NCAA football and basketball, the NCAA indirectly sponsors the development of other Olympic sports by providing additional scholarships to students who are involved in collegiate training. Thus, the cultivation of elite athletes does not require a great amount of direct funding from the government. The rotational mechanism of self-reliance is considered by the Chinese government as the optimal cooperation between elite sports cultivation and general higher education.

For historical reasons, the United States and the Soviet Union used sport as a cipher for their ideological rivalry, as a way of attempting to entice countries into their respective camps and thus cementing links with their respective allies (Houlihan, 1997). However, during the more than forty years of sport competition between the two countries, the United States sport system also adopted features from its communist rival to facilitate its own development of sports (Turrini, 2001). The most significant features adopted by the United States are the promotion and development of female sport (Turrini, 2001). It provided an impetus to the development of Olympic sports in the United States, and has forever affiliated the United States model of Olympic sports with that of communist nations.

The Purpose of the Study

The sports of communist countries, such as China, and the United States have adopted features from each other. This ongoing exchange has contributed to the similarities between the sport systems employed by the two countries. Yet, socialism has been a hallmark of sports in China for nearly half of a century so that most people, including some scholars like Riordan (1991), consider it a system in which elite sports work for the benefit of hygiene, nation building, integration, national defense, ethnic cohesion, moral cultivation, and international prestige. Carter (2002) has also argued that even in the post Cold War world, sport is organized and experienced in socialist states, such as China and Cuba, differently than many other aspects of global professional sport, media, and capitalism. Certainly, Olympic sports in some communist nations, including China, once played these political roles described by Riordan; however, in more recent years it has changed significantly. The pervasive and subtle nature of culture makes it difficult for individuals to have a thorough understanding of other cultures (Kim & Nam, 1998). As such, former impressions have lead foreign scholars to hold a stereotypical perception of sports in China.

Meanwhile, Chinese scholars are unwilling to address current issues due to the political pressures exerted by the Chinese government, which wants to erect a positive image to the international community. This is especially true when China is highly criticized by western countries for its human rights record, and Chinese scholars are barraged by external forces to adopt a position that differs from that of the government. Some Chinese scholars simply eulogize the Chinese sport system based on its excellent

performances at international competitions and ignore some of the disadvantages and critical ethical issues within the system. To avoid the risks associated with investigating these issues, scholars are more than willing to explore historical issues over the current ones. It is these obstacles that limit international communication and facilitate misapprehension between countries.

From the 1980s onward, China began its reformation in every field, which included the reformation of its Olympic sports program. During the reformation, the Chinese government chose to pursue commercialization in the sport domain. In the same fashion as it has progressed in other fields, sports in China made strides at an astonishing pace. However, because of the limited numbers of publications in English, the changes to Olympic sport in China are not commonly known by those within the international community.

Except for the limited literature about sport in China provided by Chinese scholars, the majority of relevant literature is provided by scholars from Western society. Because language barriers and other difficulties prevent them to situate into Chinese society, most foreign scholars collect their data from short term visits to China which prevent them to have an in-depth understanding of sport in China.

The author, who grew up in China and received higher education in both China and the North America, could perceive sport in China from a special perspective. Because of the influenced she experienced from Western ideologies, the author might be able to perceive sport in China reflexively and try to maintain a conscious detachment from her “object.”

This thesis is an attempt to bridge the current gap between the case-hardened impressions of Olympic sport in China between Chinese and Western academic communities by providing another understanding from a different perspective. Through which, the author hopes to provide a triangulation concerning sport in China. Choosing the sport system of the United States as the benchmark, this study will compare the systems of Olympic sport between China and the United States of America. Due to the fact that the general public has a clear understanding of Olympic sport in the United States, this comparative study will provide readers with a clear orientation concerning Olympic sport in China in an effort to redress the stereotyped perspective of scholars in North America concerning sport in China.

The Problem

The problem addressed in this research project is:

What are (were) the differences between the People's Republic of China and the United States of America on Olympic athlete cultivation?

This problem is addressed through the following steps:

- 1) Developing a description of the Olympic athlete cultivation systems of China and the United States.
- 2) Identification of the factors of China and the United States that contributed to their current cultivation system for Olympic athletes are discussed:
 - a) historical backgrounds of China and the United States;
 - b) political backgrounds of China and the United States;
 - c) economic backgrounds of China and the United States; and

- d) cultural and social backgrounds of China and the United States
- 3) Juxtaposition of the differences and similarities of Olympic athlete cultivation between China and the United States on:
 - a) identification of potential athletes;
 - b) higher education of athletes;
 - c) administration and delivery of athletes;
 - d) funding for athlete training;
 - e) treatment of female sport; and
 - f) drug administration.
- 4) Analysis of the six components identified above of the cultivation systems for Olympic athletes in China and the United States.

An Outline of the Thesis

This thesis includes an introduction, literature review, methodology, analysis and discussion, conclusion, and references.

The introduction provides general background information about the project, a brief statement of the problem and sub-problems to be answered, and the purpose of the overall project. The literature review section includes an overview of current thoughts relevant to the problem, plus a detailed review of the existing studies. The resulting analysis identifies the gap in the current body of knowledge. The methodology section covers a detailed explanation of the research design and subjects, the approach to data collection, and the limitations and delimitations imposed on the study. The analysis and discussion section include juxtaposition and comparison, as

well as data collected, facts the data revealed, inferences from the data, and findings relative to the problem and sub-problems. The conclusion section is composed of a summary of findings. The document also includes a collection of references and a table of figures.

Chapter II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Sport in the People's Republic of China

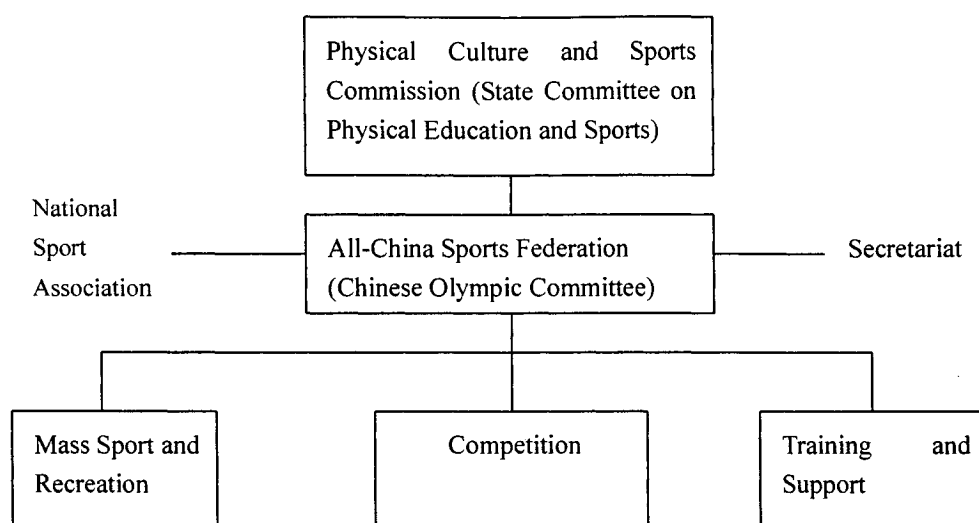
In 1949, the People's Republic of China was established by the Chinese Communist Party after its triumph over the Kuomintang. With warfare taking its toll in successive years, the hygiene and health conditions of the Chinese population were so terrible that the average life expectancy was thirty-five (Sport history of the People's Republic of China, 1999). As Cao and Brownell (1996) noted, Chinese people were identified by foreign invaders as the "weak men of East Asia" due to their poor physiques and performance in sport competitions. However, the detestable physical and emotional conditions did not prevent Chinese people from exhibiting their enthusiasm for sport. Despite the civil unrest between the Kuomintang and the Chinese Communist Party, the struggle against the Japanese invasion, and the relative poverty of the peasant population, Chinese traditional sports together with "new" sports brought in by foreigners continued to survive and flourish (Jones, 1999).

Throughout the short history of the People's Republic of China, political contradiction manifested itself in a constantly recurring theme—class struggle with endless political movements (Clumpner & Pendleton, 1978). Yet, in spite of the political convulsion, sports in China still flourished. Although Mao Zedong had railed against the old culture, ideology, customs, and habits in the early years of the People's Republic, the tradition of Tai'Chi and other martial arts remained intact (Jones, 1999). Leaders of the Chinese Communist Party also played a positive role in the promotion

of sport. Mao Zedong first emphasized the significance of physical strength in 1917, and readdressed the importance in 1952 through his calligraphy - “promote physical education and sports; build up the people’s health” (Clumpner & Pendleton, 1978). During the period that the people subscribed to the cult of Mao Zedong, the reaction to his calligraphy concerning sports was evident. Meanwhile, diverse forms of media were used to promote sport nationwide. Xie (1990) noted that by the end of the 1980s, China published more than 100 sport newspapers and magazines to promote knowledge and news relevant to sport.

For Olympic sport, China adopted the overall structure, competition model, and expertise of the Soviet Union under the guidance of the Chinese government. As Whitby (1999) argued, a centralized sports administration system was established in China based on the Soviet pattern. Rizak (1989) mentioned that sport was developed vertically and horizontally. The highest governmental organization, the State Committee on Physical Education and Sports (SCPES), was situated at the top of the newly established administration system. The SCPES took charge of all National Sport Federations (NSFs) and associations, including the provincial and municipal committees on physical education and sports. It was also responsible for policy, financial planning, personnel training, and public relations (Clumpner & Pendleton, 1978). In the 1970s, another national organization under the state committee, the All China Sport Federation (ACSF), was responsible for mass sports (Clumpner & Pendleton, 1978). However, the organizational structure shown in Figure 1 has been significantly changed since the 1980s.

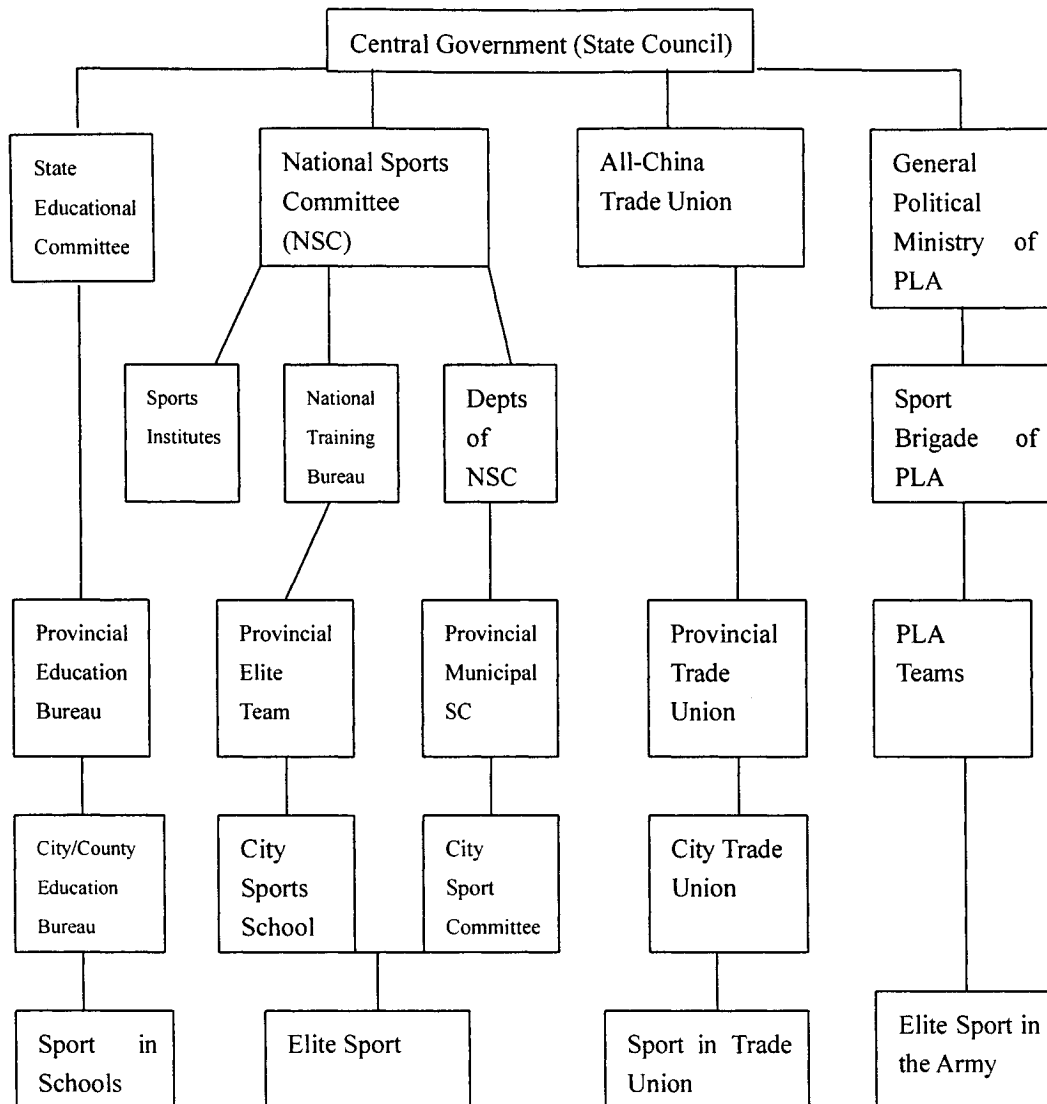
Figure 1: Organizational Relationships in Chinese Sport (in the early 1970s)



From: Clumpner, R. A. & Pendleton, B. B. (1978). The People's Republic of China. In J. Riordan. (Eds.). *Sport under Communism: The U.S.S.R., Czechoslovakia, the G.D.R., China, Cuba* (p. 117).

Dong (2001) gave an explicit description about the administrative structure of Chinese sports by putting the ACSF on a juxtaposed position with the state committee (See Figure 2). The authority dealing with sport issues was transmitted downward from the top level of the hierarchy to local sport organizations. Diverse sport programs with different performance levels were set up in factories, armies, communities, and schools. Also, the Sport System in Preparation for Labor and Defense (called the GTO by some scholars) was adopted and later evolved into the State Physical Training Standards, which facilitated the development of elite sport (Xie, 1990). The SCPES also drafted regulations which conferred titles onto athletes, coaches, and referees (Rizak, 1989). Different levels of benefits would be awarded according to the titles of sport personnel. Sport contests were to be conducted on an intra- and inter-society and territorial basis (Riordan, 1978).

Figure 2: Administrative Structure of Chinese Sport



Note: PLA= People's Liberation Army, SC= Sports Commission (Sport Committee)
 From: Dong, J. (2001). The female dragons awake: Women, sport and society in the early years of the new China. *International Journal of the History of Sport*, 18, 1-34.

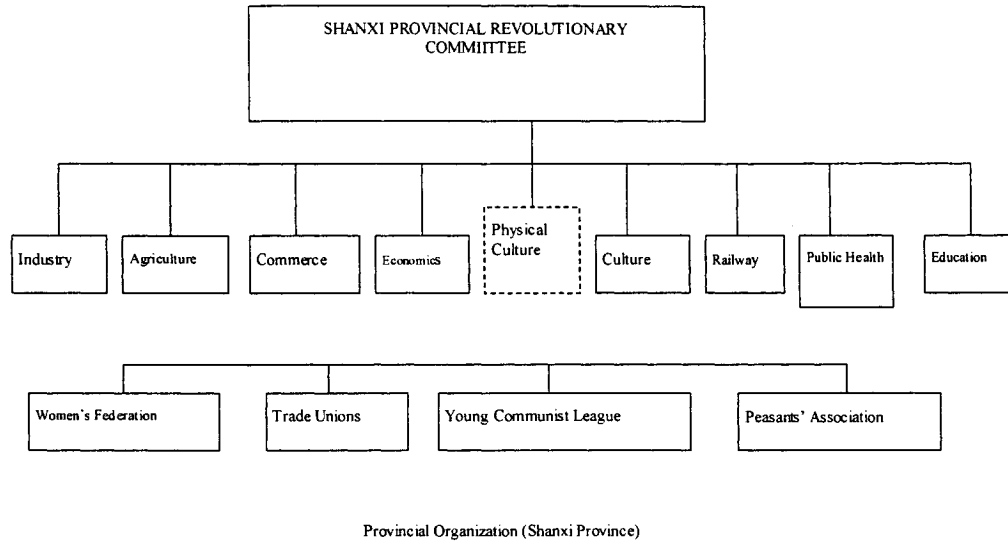
Competitions were provided on a regular basis, and national championships were held for different age groups by national sport associations or by representative agencies (Lu & Lin, 1990).

Following the political split between Beijing and Moscow in 1960, the Chinese

government ended its relationship with Warsaw Pact countries (Murray, 1995). Despite all the unrest and even open animosity that existed between the Soviet Union and China in the 1960s, the essential features of the two sports systems were virtually identical, inasmuch as they were both “centralized” and part of a sporting hierarchy that operated from government down to county and district levels (Jones, 1999). The same centrally controlled and planned application of resources aligned with the state priorities and direction of labor, and provided conditions that were more conducive to discovering, organizing, and developing talents in specific sports than those of the more disparate and private Western systems on Olympic success (Riordan, 1999).

The system that China employed to develop its elite athletes started to demonstrate its effectiveness following its re-affiliation with the International Olympic Committee (IOC) in 1980. The system itself has been thoroughly studied by many scholars. Rizak (1989) noted that the most significant features of sports in China are early identification of these talents and the centralization of elite athlete training. The identification of talent may begin as early as five years old, with the process conducted by diverse units, such as governmental agencies, education organizations, army units, state enterprises, and neighborhood groups (Rizak, 1989). During the identification of talent, local educational systems cooperated with sport organizations. By highlighting a representative provincial organizational structure in China, Clumpner and Pendleton (1978) described the significant position of the sport system in local governance (See Figure 3).

Figure 3: Organizational Structure of Shan'Xi Provincial Government



From: Clumpner, R. A. & Pendleton, B. B. (1978). The People's Republic of China. In J. Riordan. (Eds.). *Sport under Communism: The U.S.S.R., Czechoslovakia, the G.D.R., China, Cuba* (p. 118).

Once identified, youngsters would leave their formal schools and join junior part-time sport schools or primary sport schools according to their levels of sport performance (Rizak, 1989). Compared with the strikingly large number of student athletes that were trained in junior part-time sport schools, the number of student athletes that could be enrolled in the primary sport school was relatively small. According to the statistical data of Rao (1986), ninety percent of student athletes were dropped from the system in the 1980s. However, the effectiveness of the sport school system was evident in that a high percentage of Olympic medal winners were

cultivated by sport schools (Lu & Lin, 1990).

Youth athletes in primary sport schools with outstanding performances also had the option of being enrolled in sport teams that could be sponsored either by the nation or by provinces, autonomous regions, and municipalities (Lu & Lin, 1990). Meanwhile, they were eligible to pursue higher education once they no longer wished to maintain competitive training and were willing to switch their careers to teaching and coaching (Lu & Lin, 1990). As an approach to alleviate the employment pressure felt by athletes, previous members of the national teams or provincial teams could be admitted by institutes of physical education or universities without examination.

Since 1978, China, under Deng Xiaoping, has built on its cooperation with the West. Yet, it must be acknowledged that although Communism has subsided elsewhere, it still underpins the official policies of the country (Jones, 1999). Under these conditions, and with the example of the former Soviet Union, the events leading to the clash between the government and those clamoring for reform in Tiananmen Square in the summer of 1989 were perhaps predictable (Jones, 1999).

The rapid collapse of Soviet-style communism in Eastern Europe, and of the nine nations that subscribed to it, provided an opportunity to examine the communist sport policies and the impact they had on sport and popular perception (Riordan, 1999). The crisis that happened in Eastern Europe prompted China's reformation and its efforts to eliminate communist characteristics, including those in its sport domain. As Jones (1999) argued, since 1989 sport in China has demonstrated four new features: 1) decentralization has allowed provinces some autonomy in establishing programs for

sports; 2) rationalization steered the numbers of employees in sports administration; 3) the government has gradually reduced its support; and 4) more insider information about sports in China has been exposed by the media. Cao and Brownell (1996) recognized that sport was used as a tool to reach international acceptance from the standpoint of the Chinese government, while acknowledging that sport also benefited people by strengthening their physiques, enriching their social life, and serving socialism. Thus, it is argued that the government will continue to provide some funding to the training system and to the competitive program in Olympic sports (Jones, 1999). Meanwhile, Jones (1999) has also found that sources of funding for sport training have become more diversified, requiring parents to contribute towards their children's involvement in sports at the introductory level; the higher the level of sport performance, the higher the percentage they would receive from governmental funding. Zhang (1994) has argued that the connections between the government and sport organizations are weakening gradually in China. The result is that the business community has become involved in sport as a tool to foster international exchanges rather than exchanges that were initiated only for the sake of political concerns (Rizak, 1989).

After a series of partial reforms (See Figure 4) and preparations, the most evident reformation happened to governmental sport bodies (Jones, 2000). In 1998, the Chinese government announced at the Ninth National People's Congress in Beijing that the SCPEs and provincial committees on sport and physical education would be closed, by which the nominal relationship between the government and sports was

weakened (Jones, 2000). Even though these changes may be perceived as radical, Riordan (1999) predicted that sport in China might adopt features of sport found in Western countries and keep its bureaucracy at the same time.

Figure 4: Chronology of Change in the Period from 1979 to 1998

1978/79	Deng Xiao Ping comes to power. Start of the reform era; open door policies and modernization program take root
1980s	The collapse of communism and the decade of change in eastern Europe.
1990s	Re-alignment of policies with free market under the banner “Socialism with Chinese characteristics”
1995	New government regulation for sport; new professional soccer leagues formed; soccer management centre planned
1996	Soccer management centers established; basketball and volleyball management offices follow suit.
1997	Sports Commission (SCPES) re-structured; management offices for all major sports planned. Provincial Regulations appear in some provinces
1998	Major government restructuring announced by State Council; SCPES to close, closure of provincial sports commissions also announced. All China Sports Federation to become the government’s sport office, listed directly under the State Council, with loss of ministerial status.

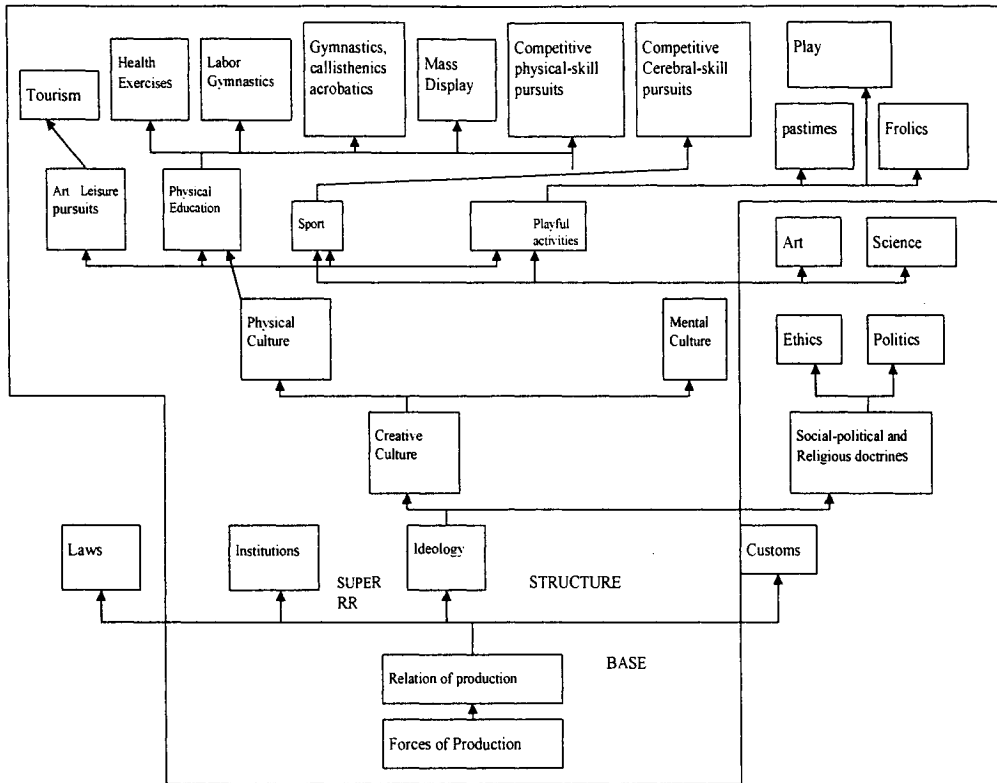
From: Jones, Robin (2000). *Old borders, new borders, no borders: sport and physical education in a period of change* (p. 106).

The reasons that sport was highly promoted were far more diverse than what the Chinese government claimed— “serve for people.” Xie (1990) argued that the four general objectives for sports in China were: 1) developing and maintaining good health; 2) developing new leaders for Chinese society; 3) promoting the economy; and 4) enhancing relationships with other countries. Clumpner and Pendleton (1978) have argued that the idea of physical culture was to serve the people by encouraging them to become physically healthy, enabling them to be highly productive, and preparing them for national defense. Other scholars have noted that sport was used to promote

ideology (Riordan, 1991; & Whitby, 1999). Riordan (1991) has conducted a thorough analysis of the purposes for communist countries to promote sport. Riordan (1991) noted that in contrast to sports in a capitalist society, which represent individual concerns, sport in communist countries was part of the social superstructure (See Figure 5). He also identified the positive role that sport plays on the inculcation of political loyalties to the nation. Relevant to education, health, culture, and politics, sport mobilized people toward the national integration of the diverse ethnic groups and raised group consciousness. Meanwhile, sports generated positive effects on youth education, women's liberation, and weakened the influence of religions (Riordan, 1991).

Brownell (2000) found that through systematic sports diplomacy, China has employed a number of strategies to strengthen the position of itself along with other Third World nations within the IOC. Also, on the reasons for China's promotion of sports, Brownell (2000) explored a new notion of "love face," which related to people who are overly concerned with promoting their own reputations. In other words, vanity shapes the behavior of individuals, influences relationships between groups, and even pervades China's actions as a nation (Brownell, 2000).

Figure 5: Sport in the Social Superstructure of Communist Countries



From: Riordan, J. (1991). *Sport, politics and communist: Sport in society* (p. 30).

Sports in the United States of America

Contemporary sport in Western countries expresses those industrial societies' competitive and aggressive features by focusing on physical proficiency, strength, individual fame, and prosperity (Krawczyk, 1996). Sport in the United States of America represents all of the features often found in Western states. Heider (1983) argued that play was part of culture and must be consistent with the rest of society; otherwise, it would be modified by the society. This viewpoint can be applied to explain the emergence of game sports, such as football and basketball, in the United

States to meet their social needs.

According to Geldbach's (1976) statement, America started to adopt German gymnastics as physical education curriculum in the fall of 1823. Immigrant groups reinforced the practice of establishing sport clubs and promoted specific sports (Houlihan, 1997). Prior to 1880, sport clubs essentially functioned to promote the sport participation of their members (Willis & Wettan, 1976). In 1879, the National Association of Amateur Athletes of America (NAAAA) was formed with the hope that it would settle all disputes regarding amateurism and help organize national championships in amateur sports (Mechikoff & Estes, 1998). Through the development of sport organizations, the Amateur Athletic Union, an organization formed in 1888, had control of all amateur competition in the United States in the 1890s. Following the turn of the century, the era can best be characterized by the vast number of clubs, the transitory nature of many of those clubs, and the unprecedented involvement of athletes from socio-economic levels to whom sport competition had previously been beyond reach (Willis & Wettan, 1976).

During World War I, both collegiate and professional sports were restrained and military training was promoted by the government and educators (O'Hanlon, 1982). However, the restraint of sport combined with the promotion of physical education with military aims impelled the mass participation of sports following World War I. As Hult (1994) noted, the "Golden Age of Sport" in the 1920s brought phenomenal growth to athletics.

Another stimulation of sports in the United States was the Great Depression which

overshadowed much of the 1930s. During the Great Depression, approximately one-quarter of the civilian labor force was out of work—an increase of five-hundred percent from the beginning of the Great Depression in 1929 (Wong, 1998). Prior to the economic crash in the 1930s, over sixty percent of the United States' population had annual incomes of less than \$2,000. By 1934 the per capita income had dropped to \$474 (LeCompte, 1992). To draw people's attention away from this adversity, the government urged people to participate in recreation and sports by creating more sport opportunities for those interested. From 1932 to 1937, the federal government spent approximately \$1.5 billion in building and improving permanent recreational facilities in the United States (Welch, 1996).

During World War II millions of Americans in and out of military service experienced physical training and participated in sports that the federal government had organized to raise the national quotient of physical fitness and to impart “combative” values to individual citizens (Mrozek, 1994). The onset of World War II provided increased opportunities for women to enter the workplace and thus gave impetus to a change in the status of women both in society and in sport (Weiller & Higgs, 1992). Following World War II, the democratic ideology was highly promoted globally, which drove the development of sport for women and minority people, due, in part, to the sanctum of sport that is premised on the unofficial doctrines of equality of opportunity, sportsmanship, and fair play (Spivey, 1988).

Along with amateur sports, intercollegiate and intramural sports also developed. Intercollegiate sport emerged even earlier than professional sports; the structure and

administration of intercollegiate sport, however, experienced an extended period of evolution to reach the current pattern. Pennsylvania State College was one of the first to legalize the recruitment and payment of athletes when, in 1900, the Board of Trustees sanctioned athletic scholarships to include room, board, and tuition (Smith, 1997).

Prior to the inclusion of intercollegiate sport as a part of campus life, disorderly conduct among college student athletes was a problem frequently dealt with by administrators (Welch, 1996). For example, many players of intercollegiate football were killed as a result of severe injuries acquired during competitions, players were absent for training and games, and eligibility regulations were abandoned, all of which lead to adverse publicity (Welch, 1996).

In December 1905, The Intercollegiate Athletic Association (IAA) was founded with the purposes, as stated by Pierce (1908), of regulating and supervising college sport throughout the United States, and maintaining collegiate sport activities on an ethical plane in keeping with the dignity and high purpose of education. Renamed the NCAA in 1910, the IAA represented the first nationwide attempt to unite colleges and universities who were interested in improving the conduct of sport programs (Welch, 1996). In 1946, the Sanity Code, which covered amateurism, academic standards, financial aid to athletes, recruiting, and institutional control and responsibility, was passed to consummate the standards of intercollegiate sports (Hult, 1994).

Prior to the middle of the twentieth century, the preoccupation with winning at all costs had not been the dominant characteristic of track and field, college sports, and

preadolescent youth sports (Rader, 1984). However, the introduction of television and the large sums of money that seemed to invariably accompany the medium led to the eventual demise of amateur sports in America in the 1950s (Rader, 1984). The combination of a strong amateur ethos and marketability has resulted in the transformation of the governing body of college sport, the NCAA, into a thorough-going commercial concern (Houlihan, 1997).

Beyond the economic factors, politics also greatly contributed to the development of sports in the United States during the Cold War. The linkage of sport to physical fitness and, consequently, to preparedness for war, generated renewed policy interest in the context of the Cold War confrontation (Chalip & Johnson, 1996). Riordan (1993) remarked that under the circumstances of the Cold War, with the existence of two “hostile” camps, namely the United States and the Soviet Union, with rival military blocs confronting one another, sport became an obvious arena for international competition. The performances of communist sports and capitalist sports were disproportionate to their respective rates of population and political influences. The centrally governed cultivation system of athletes in the Soviet Union demonstrated superiority and efficiency over its American counterpart (Riordan, 1993).

Thus, during the Cold War, the Olympic Games became the new battlefield for the ideology of the United States versus that of the Soviet Union. Other than the quadrennial Olympic Games, the USA-USSR dual track meet series was the most important and visible Cold War sport competition to emerge in the later 1950s and 1960s (Turrini, 2001). Announced by American and Soviet sport officials in 1956, the

USA-USSR dual track meet series lasted 28 years (from 1958 to 1985) and encouraged the American government to modify some policies dealing with amateur sports (Turrini, 2001). Because of the Series' unusually high-profile and political importance, it played a role in the bureaucratic power struggle between the NCAA and the American Athletic Union (AAU) (Turrini, 2001).

The performance of male athletes from both countries was well-matched; however, female athletes from the Soviet Union overwhelmed their American counterparts. The negative outcomes of the United States team during the Series encouraged the AAU to promote female sports nationwide (Turrini, 2001). This decision resulted in the formation of female national teams outside of the Olympic and Pan-American Games competitions (Turrini, 2001). For sports other than track and field, the Olympic influence and the desire for varsity competition produced a marked tendency toward more vigorous activities for girls, as well as the adoption of boys' rules (VanDalen & Bennett, 1971).

Meanwhile, high schools began to provide opportunities for participation through the efforts of the Girls' Athletic Association, and colleges continued to offer "play days" and began to schedule contests against other institutions in field hockey, fencing, basketball, volleyball, softball, gymnastics, swimming, and track and field (Mechikoff & Estes, 1998). Increasing interest in women's intercollegiate sports led to the establishment of the National Section on Girls' and Women's Sports, which was renamed the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) in 1971 (Mechikoff & Estes, 1998). In 1972, Title IX, a federal act that facilitated the

development of female sports, was passed and it led to increased financial resources and participation rates in female sport at educational institutions (VanderZwagg, 1998).

Title IX affected the authority of the NCAA on allocating financial resources for intercollegiate sports. By the time of its 1973 Convention, the NCAA had succeeded in removing its regulations which prohibited female students from participating in NCAA programs, thus opening the door for the NCAA to administer and eventually control intercollegiate sports for women (Wu, 1999). Yet, when Title IX became the law of the land and was used to enforce the rights of equal opportunity, the court chose the men's model as the norm, which led to the disbanding of the AIAW and the leadership of the NCAA over female collegiate sports (Wu, 1999).

VanDalen and Bennett (1971) stated that the NCAA started to organize separate federations for track and field, gymnastics, basketball, and wrestling without the cooperation of the AAU in 1965. As of 1969, the Amateur Athletic Union maintained jurisdiction through 57 district associations over 17 sports, which included track and field, gymnastics, basketball, and so on. The overlap between the two rivals inevitably resulted in fierce battles. The United States had a well-developed national college system and local high school competition system, but the AAU lacked its own junior program (Turrini, 2001). On the other hand, the NCAA took control of recruiting and retaining its athletes in colleges through athletic scholarships, which was attractive to student athletes (Turrini, 2001). The lack of medal production associated with the sport performance of American athletes at the 1972 Olympic Games made sports

development more significant to the White House and the Senate. Therefore, the problems with laissez-faire sports governance were becoming increasingly clear (Chalip & Johnson, 1996). In 1974 the Senate passed the Amateur Athletic Act, which gave the United States Olympic Committee (USOC) authority to establish national goals for amateur sports and to encourage attainment of those goals (Chalip & Johnson, 1996), forcing the AAU to divest all Olympic sport franchises it charged (Turrini, 2001). Since the passage of the Amateur Athletic Act, the athletic system of the United States has not significantly changed when compared with its Chinese counterpart.

Chapter III

METHODOLOGY

The methodology section includes a detailed explanation of the research design; selection of subjects; instruments used to collect data; and limitations and delimitations.

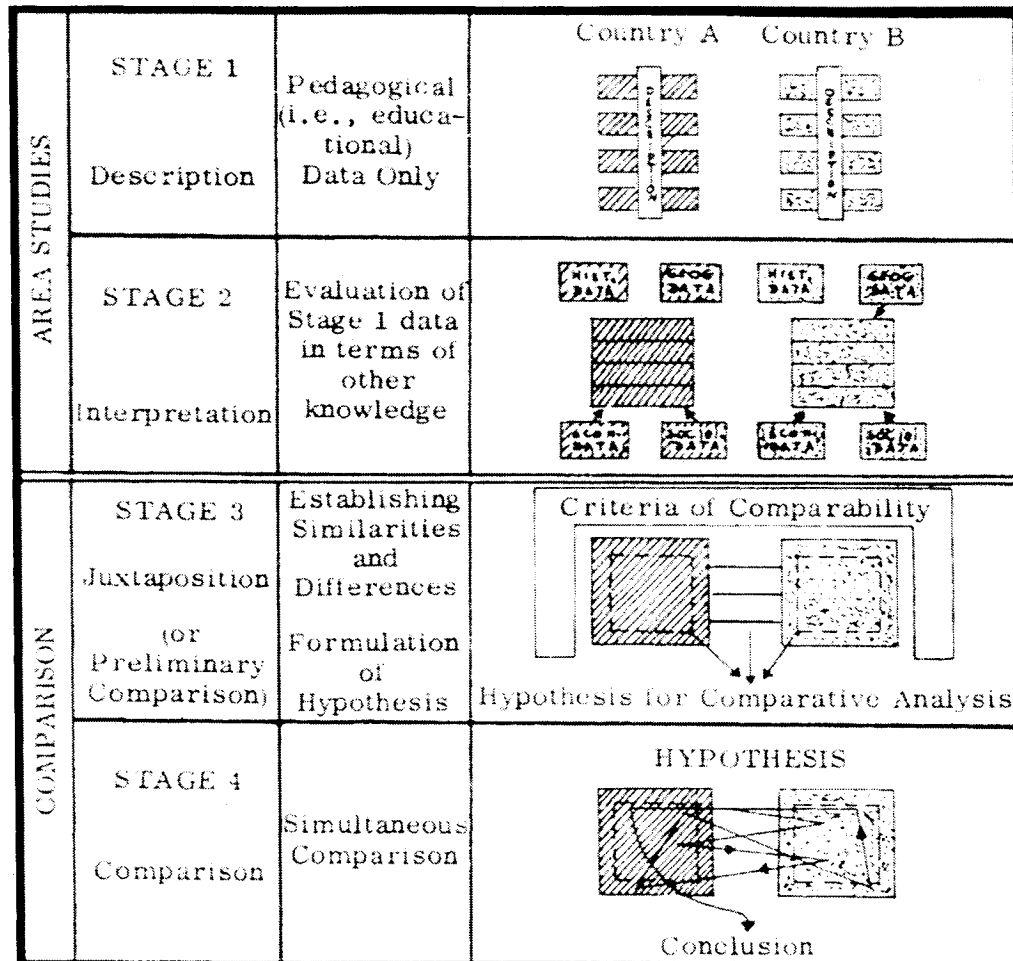
Explanation of the Research Design

As a comparative study of Olympic athlete cultivation in China and the United States, this thesis aims to explore the similarities and differences between the two dynamic systems. As Moehlman (1963) argued, education is the social process of directed learning that can be divided into specialization and generalization. Based on this definition of “education,” it encompasses teaching and learning specific skills, and also something less tangible but more profound: the imparting of knowledge, good judgment and wisdom, with one of its fundamental goals being the imparting of culture across the generations (<http://www.wordiq.com/definition/Education>). According to the definition, it can be easily identified that education and athlete cultivation share the following characteristics: teaching and learning, imparting of knowledge, offering good judgment and wisdom, and socialization of people. Therefore, in this thesis, the cultivation of athletes will be perceived as a specialized educational process and will be studied through Bereday’s (1964) model for comparative education.

As Bereday (1964) argued, comparative studies exist because of the need to explore, systematically, the quality of foreign systems as a means to evaluate one’s own system. To reach the goal of exploring the quality of the Olympic athlete

cultivation systems in China and the United States, this thesis will conduct the comparison according to the four steps listed by Bereday (1964). These include description, interpretation, juxtaposition, and comparison (See Figure 6).

Figure 6: Four Stages of Comparative Methodology



From: Bereday, G. Z. F. (1964). *Comparative Method in Education* (p. 28).

In the description section, the thesis refers to primary sources, such as eye-witness accounts, reports, and secondary sources of many kinds produced in the area (Jones, 1971) to describe the current systems of Olympic athlete cultivation in China and the United States. Meanwhile, pedagogical data is presented through diagrams, graphs, statistical tables, and facts (Jones, 1971). The description section provides readers with

a panorama of Olympic athlete cultivation of both China and the United States. The thesis provides an outline of the systems of Olympic sports in China and the United States. The systems used by the two countries are described; organic structure of the systems are outlined; the roles that significant sport organizations play during the process of Olympic athlete cultivation are clarified; and performances of Olympic athletes of China and the United States are compared.

Second, the interpretation section consists of the evaluation of the backgrounds of both China and the United States from their historical, political, economic, and social and cultural perspectives (Jones, 1971). No educational system can be appreciated outside its cultural frame of reference (Jones, 1971). As such, all of the humanities and social sciences should be used to broaden the vistas of comparative education (Bereday, 1964). However, simply describing the two systems in China and the United States is not enough for the comparative study. The purpose of this section is to explore the influences of these backgrounds on the Olympic athlete cultivation systems in China and the United States and to identify the causes for the formation of the current Olympic athlete cultivation systems in both countries.

From the historical perspective, both countries are briefly introduced in two sections: pre-1949; and 1949-1978. This classification has been selected according to the most significant events that happened in China's modern history. In 1949, the People's Republic of China came into existence, resulting in a remarkable transformation of sports in China; and in 1978, China started its Reformation and Open Door policies. Political influences were also one of the significant factors that

contributed to the current systems. Different political ideologies employed by China and the United States are presented, and their influences on Olympic sports are analyzed. In the same way, economic, cultural, and social backgrounds and their influences on sport systems have been analyzed.

The third section, juxtaposition, identifies several components that both China and the United States utilize in cultivating their Olympic athletes. This evaluation is to explore additional differences and similarities of the cultivation process. Different from the description section, which is a general description of the respective Olympic athlete cultivation systems, the juxtaposition section dissects the cultivation system into six independent segments and a detailed comparison is conducted. This thesis identifies similarities and differences respectively on the identification of potential athletes, higher education of athletes, administration and selection of athletes, funding of athlete training, treatment of female athletics, and briefly discusses drug administration between China and the United States. Based on the purpose of the thesis, the juxtaposition section will focus mainly on the current situation of Olympic athlete cultivation (1998-2003).

Following the juxtaposition section is the discussion and conclusion section. This section compares and analyzes each of the six factors that contribute to Olympic athlete cultivation systems in China and the United States. The conclusion of the comparative study is reached here.

Data Collection

The goal of the thesis is to compare the cultivation of Olympic athletes in China and the United States. For Olympic sports, China and the United States both excelled in different areas. Although athletes from the United States dominate more sports, comparatively, Chinese athletes excel in some sports that received little attention in other countries, such as table tennis, diving, and female weight-lifting.

Sports that have professional leagues are not the research objects of this thesis. For instance, the most successful professional leagues in the United States are the National Football League, the National Basketball Association, the Major Leagues of Baseball, and the National Hockey League. The most popular professional leagues in China cover the Chinese Football (soccer) Association, and the Chinese Basketball Association. Although the majority of the league sports mentioned above is officially recognized Olympic sports, these sports possess distinct attributes that cannot be found in most other Olympic sports. As such, this thesis does cover the cultivation of athletes for those professional leagues identified above.

Although some Chinese sport leagues, such as the Chinese Volleyball Association, the Chinese Table Tennis Association, and the Chinese Badminton Association, have been formed since the 1990s, these sport leagues have not been successfully commercialized and possess few attributes of successful professional leagues. Thus, those sports are treated as Olympic sports rather than sports with professional leagues.

Data Collection Instrument

The data for this thesis rely mainly on published secondary sources. In addition to

the limited written material on sports in China, additional data is acquired from Chinese sport organizations or governmental organization. For instance, the amount of yearly governmental investment to Olympic athlete cultivation will be acquired from the SCPES directly. Except for the aforementioned sources, the personal experiences of the author will become one of the major sources.

In 1978, the author was born in a medium city in North of China. The city, Renqiu in Hebei Province, was founded in 1976 following the discovery of the North China Oil Field. The majority of residents are employed by the China National Petroleum Corporation. The author grew up from a so called “intelligence” family, in that both parents have college degrees. Influenced by the family environment, the author highly valued education and established a positivist Marxist and atheism ideology, which was dominant in China in the 1970s and the 1980s. Between 1984 and 1994, the author was involved in intensive training in gymnastics to enhance fitness and health.

Since the end of the 1980s, due to the dramatic changes in China, especially the reconstruction of the social hierarchy, the Marxist ideology of the author has been severely challenged. However, the education system in China only offered introduction in communist and Marxist philosophies. The incongruence between reality and education led the author to generate anti-government orientation, which reached a peak at the end of the 1990s, when the author pursued her bachelor in sport management at the Beijing University of Physical Education. From 1996 to 2000, the author received comprehensive education in management theories, and the sport history of China.

Following a college education and a brief period of full-time employment in a

governmental sport organization, the author went to the United States of America and resumed her post graduate education at The Ohio State University (OSU) in Sport Management between 2001 and 2002. At OSU, the author was introduced to quantitative research method, educational statistics, and psychological theories that are generally utilized in management domain.

Limitations

This thesis is limited by time and the available resources in that the researcher has been unable to locate sufficient English literature focusing on sports in China, and those that have been found rely mainly on secondary sources. As such, the data on sports in China for the period may be biased in that it relies on the resources provided by the Chinese government. Also, subjected to political influence from the Chinese government, Chinese scholars are unwilling to address unethical issues and marginalized groups of sport in China. For political purposes, the Chinese government could eulogize the achievement that it had in sports, thus avoiding any mention of its faults for its political needs. Therefore, resources generated by Chinese scholars may only provide positive data concerning sport in China. With the understanding of political context of China, these resources provide a different perspective to perceive sport in China. The thesis is also limited in that the author is physically located in Canada, and therefore is unable to gain access to some of the resources in China. Furthermore, due to the dramatic changes that are happening in both of the countries under investigation, this thesis is also limited in that it may not reflect the latest situation concerning Olympic athlete cultivation in both of the countries.

The thesis may also be limited by the biases of the author as they are lead by her personal experiences in that she grew up in China and has had experiences for only a short period in the United States and Canada. The communist environment in China may also exert an ideological predisposition on the author. On the other hand, by using the methodology of Bereday (1964), the comparison may be unbalanced vis a vis the existing literatures of the two countries, which in turn could lead to an unbalanced judgment. Using Bereday's (1964) model, the thesis divides the process of Olympic athlete cultivation into sections and conducts the comparison between the two countries section by section. It may jeopardize the possibility of establishing relationships between factors and forces that contribute to the current Olympic athlete cultivation systems.

Delimitations

This thesis proposal is delimited in that it has divided the elite sports into Olympic sports and professional league sports. Many sports, including basketball, are officially recognized by the International Olympic Committee and played under the professional leagues in China and the United States. The researcher has only explored the sports that are officially recognized as Olympic sports but do not have successfully commercialized professional leagues.

The thesis is further delimited by the researcher's decision to exclude the psychological feelings and the socioeconomic status of athletes, as well as other athletic personnel. Rokeach and Parker (1970) argued that socio-economic information is significant to value selection. Psychological feelings of athletes also influence their

achievement and drop-off. This thesis is delimited in that it only conducts its analysis from a macro perspective, while omitting the individual attributes and concerns of athletes.

The thesis is also delimited in that it will only juxtapose six components (identification of potential athletes; higher education of athletes; funding of athlete training; administration and selection of athletes, treatment of female athletics; and drug administration) of Olympic athlete cultivation in China and the United States. There are other significant factors, such as compensation of athletes and management of sport organization, involved during the cultivation process of Olympic athletes that will be addressed.

The thesis is also delimited in that the author will focus mainly on the contemporary situation of Olympic athlete cultivation in China and the United States within the period from 1998 to 2003.

Chapter IV

BACKGROUND ANALYSIS

General Description of Sport in China

The People's Republic of China was established in 1949 by the Chinese Communist Party. As the most populous country in the world, China has more than 1.3 billion people, most of whom live in the coastal southeastern areas. The country is composed of 56 ethnic groups of which the Han group is the most dominant. Minority groups are scattered around the country, but mainly live in border areas in the northeastern, northwestern, and southwestern regions. The population of this minority was over 100 million in 2000.

Chinese life is intimately linked to agriculture (Cressey, 1939). The approximate number of people engaged in agricultural work or registered as rural residents is nearly 900 million. As Cressey (1939) cited, within an approximate total gross area of some 1,400,000 square miles in agricultural China (exclusive of the three northeastern provinces) 340,000 square miles, or approximately one fourth is cultivated, while the remaining 59.7 percent is used for other purposes or is valueless. For agricultural use, the valueless land, which is mainly located in the northeastern, northwestern, and southwestern areas, has led to a disparity of economic development among terrains.

China has more than five thousand years of history. The development of a writing system of ideographic characters can be traced back almost four thousand years. The only native religion found in China is Taoism. Before the independence of the People's Republic of China, the most popular religion was Buddhism. Almost at the same time

that Chinese people started to accept Buddhism, Confucianism had become the dominant ideology in China.

When the Chinese Communist Party came into power in 1949, Confucianism was replaced by Communism. Under the communist influence of the Soviet Union, the Chinese government established a communist national mechanism. The Chinese Communist Party adopted a sport system similar to that of the Soviet Union, which used sports as a political tool and a governmental function. Before 1972, sport in China was mainly used to foster friendship with other communist countries and emerging countries in Asia and Africa. Following the “Ping-Pong” diplomacy in the early 1970s, the Chinese government started to use sport to win international recognition and prestige.

In the 1980s, due to restrictions in financial and human resources, the Chinese government decided to pool its limited resources for success in the Olympics Games. A hierarchic training system for elite athletes was established. According to the data from SCPES, approximately 17,000 people were directly involved in training for the Olympic Games. By 1997, there were 60,000 athletes involved in high-level training in primary sport schools or provincial sport teams. There were 260,000 athletes involved in secondary-level training sport schools. In addition, there were approximately 5,000,000 students in elementary and middle schools involved in spare-time training.

Chinese athletes performed satisfactorily in international competitions. Since 1984, Chinese athletes have won 82 gold, 91 silver, and 72 bronze medals in Olympic competition. With regard to the Asian Games, Chinese athletes have occupied the

leading position since 1982. In the recent Asian Games, the leading position of China has been more evident than ever before.

In the main, Chinese athletics has focused on several sports, such as diving, swimming, badminton, table tennis, gymnastics, weight-lifting, and shooting. Performance in some sports, such as track and field and soccer, has been relatively poor. In general, however, female athletes achieved more medals in Olympic Games and other international competitions than their male counterparts.

General Description of Sport in the United States of America

In the 17th century, Puritan-leaning religious opinions were generally prosecuted in England, which, in turn, led to large scale immigration to North America. Carried by the Mayflower, Pilgrims arrived in North America in 1621. Through the Declaration of Independence, the United States of America, originally composed of thirteen states, broke away from Britain in July, 1776. In the first half of the nineteenth century, Americans streamed westward. The immigrant colonies gradually extended from what is now the Northeastern part of the United States, eventually reaching the Pacific coast. America's national boundaries were drawn without geographical coherence (Russo, 2000).

Through the continued development of more than three hundred years, the United States has become the most powerful country in the world. Currently, the United States has nearly 300 million people. The western coastal area, eastern coastal area, Great Lakes area, and the New England area are more populous than the central mountain areas. Metropolitan areas on the western and eastern coasts and the Great Lakes have

several cities with a long-established manufacturing base and financial industries that are globally recognized.

The population of the United States is mainly composed of six racial categories. The white group of European ancestry is the dominant group both in economic and political terms. The second largest racial group is African American. American Indian or Alaska Natives, Asians, Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islanders, and some other ethnicities comprise the remaining four major racial categories.

Cultivable land and the low cost of its farm products have allowed the country to become one of the major agricultural product exporters in the world. With the onset of industrialization, the majority of its population moved to cities, becoming involved in the industrial sectors and a variety of services. This, in turn, generated the need for recreation and sport. Following World War I, the United States replaced England to become the financial center of the world. The economy of the United States became the weatherglass of the global economy. Since the Cold War, the Western coast of the United States, including the well-known Silicon Valley, has lead in the area of global high-tech development. Meanwhile, the United States has also become the biggest energy consumer in the world. Except for its petroleum reserves in Alaska and Texas, the United States has maintained control over countries with petroleum reserves in South America and the Middle East by exerting its political and military influence.

At the end of World War II, the United States fell into the Cold War with the communist countries which were lead by the Soviet Union. Both of the superpowers fought for world domination. The two rivals competed in military, political, economic,

and scientific domains. The fundamental rivalry of the two countries was focused on the ideological difference between communism and capitalism. Although competition was concentrated in the four aforementioned areas, it spilled over into the world of sport. The athletic performances of the two countries in international competition were considered by some to indicate the superiority of their ideologies. Thus, the sporting rivalry between the United States and the Soviet Union drove the development of athletics in both countries during the Cold War era.

During the period of the Cold War, the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU), the NCAA, and the USOC played different roles in cultivating athletes. The contest for authority among those three major organizations influenced the effectiveness and efficiency of the American system in producing elite athletes. Due to its inferior performance on the international stage, culminating with the 1972 Olympic Summer Games, the federal government of the United States weakened the authority of the AAU, allowing the NCAA and the USOC to take responsibility for cultivating and selecting elite athletes for Olympic competition through the Amateur Sports Act. Since the adoption of the Amateur Sports Act, the NCAA and USOC have confirmed their authority over a vertically integrated set of sports associations (Chalip & Johnson, 1996).

Compared with the system adopted by the government of the Soviet Union which fully supported athletics, the government of the United States intended to limit its involvement in amateur sport (Chalip & Johnson, 1996). Avoiding direct involvement in administration, the government released the authority to sport management organizations. The biggest financial support to amateur sport was legalized with the

Amateur Sports Act, which included provisions for a one-time appropriation of \$30 million to the USOC (Chalip & Johnson, 1996). Except for the aforementioned funding to the USOC, the federal government kept supporting amateur sports by working on facility development and promoting physical education in the interest of national security from the 1930s to the end of the Cold War.

Following World War II, a democratic movement raged in the United States. During the period of the Cold War, the feminism and the anti-racism movements in the 1960s also positively contributed to the involvement of women and African Americans in athletics. The advancement of black athletes and female athletes did much to promote equality and freedom, thereby allowing for an increase of both in athletics.

Since the Soviet Union's debut in the 1952 Olympic Games, the United States and the Soviet Union were able to maintain their top two positions in the Olympic medal count list. After the political crisis in Eastern Europe at the end of the 1980s, the dominance of the United States became evident. Sports in which American athletes excel are diverse. Statistically, its male athletes have performed better than their female counterparts.

Notwithstanding its prestigious performance in the Olympic arena, the United States has a highly commercialized sport business sector. In addition to its recognized success in professional sports, the United States has successfully hosted several Olympic Games and generated considerable revenues. This business model for commercial sport also generally applies to intercollegiate athletics.

Historical Background – China Pre-1949

As an ancient country with nearly 5,000 years of history, historical records show that the Chinese people began their involvement in sport and physical education thousands of years ago and have never lost their association of sport. This is in spite of the fact that ancient China had no word corresponding to gymnastics or athletics as employed in ancient Greece; nor did it have any organized athletic competition resembling the ancient Olympics (Gu, 1990). According to function, ancient Chinese physical activities can be classified into three general categories: military sport, medical sports, and recreational games and sports (Gu, 1990).

Unlike martial artists from other countries, the Chinese developed a set of notions distinct from their Western counterparts. Some Chinese martial arts are free of antagonism and competitiveness, but highlight harmony and a peaceful temperament. These unique characteristics of Chinese martial arts were partially influenced by Buddhism which promotes harmony among the individual, society, and nature. As a part of daily life, Tai'Chi and Daoyin were widely adopted to keep people healthy. Prior to the Opium War in 1940, traditional Chinese sports were dominant.

Apart from Chinese martial arts, competitive sports also played a distinct role in Chinese society. From the Tang dynasty (A.D. 618-907), competitive sports were used to select talented warriors in the imperial examinations. Victors were awarded official military positions. Since Confucianism was adopted by governors to consolidate their reigns, the significance of physical and sport activities had been ignored intentionally by society; similarly, physical abilities or skills were not valued.

In modern times, Chinese society has experienced unprecedented military misfortune. Following the 1840s, China was involved in a series of wars to defend its territory. The majority of these battles ended with the defeat of the Chinese, followed by the enormous burden of reparations. A protracted period of political, military, and economic strife accelerated the partitioning of China by foreign influences. Coastal cities and some large interior cities were compelled to open their borders, allowing foreigners to establish churches, schools, and business.

Formal physical education was absent in China until the end of the 19th century. Students studied Confucian classics to prepare for the Imperial Examination. In 1903, the Qing government required each school to establish a gymnastics faculty. After the collapse of the Qing dynasty, the new government extended the regulation and ordered the Ministry of Education to promote physical education.

Following World War I, China fell into the grip of independent military governors, so called warlords, supported by the western powers (Speak, 1999). Between 1937 and 1945, China was involved in an eight-year war with Japan. During the extended fighting, China lost approximately 13 million people. The collective impact of these convulsions contributed to the decline of China and forced China to adopt Western culture as well as Western sports.

As an outgrowth of those events, there were three major methods by which modern sports were exported to China: the Christian church system; foreigners visiting China; and Chinese students traveling abroad (Gu, 1990). Among the three methods identified, the Christian church system was the most significant contributor to the

distribution of modern sports in China. This was accomplished through the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) and the Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA).

The YMCA not only established recreation programs in China, but also laid the foundation for national athletic programs, as well as the training of instructors and sports administrators in Shanghai and Tianjin (Speak, 1999). Athletics successively appeared at St. John's University in Shanghai and Tianjin in the 1890s (Clumpner & Pendleton, 1978). The YWCA guided women's participation in sport in China in a small number of missionary schools. One such example was established by Abby Mayhew from the University of Wisconsin, who traveled to China in 1912 to set up the first YWCA program, a Physical Training School for Chinese Women in Shanghai (Clumpner & Pendleton, 1978). China's adoption of modern sport from Western countries resulted from a compromising process of Chinese society under the oppression of industrialized countries.

With the promotion of modern sports by foreigners, provincial and international sports meetings emerged at the beginning of the 20th century (Fan & Tan, 2002). In order to unify China's sports competitions in 1924, a non-governmental organization, the China National Amateur Athletic Federation, was founded in Nanjing (Fan & Tan, 2002). Later, the federation was recognized by the IOC as the country's National Olympic Committee. It organized four National Games between 1924 and 1948, and sent Chinese athletes to the Far Eastern Championship Games beginning in 1920 and the Olympic Games as early as 1928 (Fan & Tan, 2002).

In December 1927, the National Physical Education and Sports Committee, the first governmental organization to take charge of physical education and sports, was established by the Education Ministry of the Kuomintang government (Fan & Tan, 2002). A debate over choosing competitive sports or military gymnastics was initiated in the academic community. The Chinese scholars reached the conclusion that competitive sports and game sports from the United States were not suitable for China, indicating that China needed soldiers for defense, rather than players.

From the beginning, the involvement of Chinese athletes in international competitions was directed by the government for political interests. Chiang Kai-shek recognized that the Olympic Games were becoming an increasingly important political arena (Kanin, 1978). In 1932 China sent its first Olympic athlete to the Olympic Games in Los Angeles. As a diplomatic gesture to forestall Japan's attempt to send athletes under the name of Manchuria, the government kept sending athletes to attend the Olympic Games (Hsu, 1975). In the meantime, the Kuomintang government under the leadership of Chiang Kai-shek took an active role to extend the adoption of military sports in China. However, the Japanese invasion interrupted the development of sport in China.

Following World War II, China's Civil War between the Chinese Communist government and the Kuomintang government continued from 1945 to 1948. During this period, athletics and physical education experienced limited progress. Sports were only adopted in the cities on a small scale. The majority of the population located in rural areas had no chance to make contact with athletics or to take part in physical

education.

Historical Background – the United States of America Pre-1949

For a variety of reasons - to escape political and religious persecution, to embrace economic opportunity, and to flee from economic calamity - people from Europe immigrated to America (Russo, 2000). Since the 19th century, farming has become increasingly mechanized and commercialized in the United States. The limited opportunity provided by farming resulted in the gradual relocation of many to cities because of the advantages offered by industrialization. On the one hand, the informal rural sporting pastimes of early America could hardly be expected to fulfill the leisure recreation needs of a growing urban society (Barney, 1988). On the other hand, the growth of cities contributed much to the development of sports and physical education. Improved transportation, combined with a higher standard of living and more free time, increased the scope of competition and enabled more residents to participate in and watch sport competitions (Hardy, 1997). Greater disposable incomes resulted in the expansion of recreation opportunities for the urban population. New communication technology, such as the telegraph and the penny press, helped to drive enthusiasm for sports and games (Hardy, 1997). Larger and more concentrated populations cultivated a bigger market for sporting equipment, entertainment, and information needs for consumers.

Influenced by puritan religious doctrines and secular laws prior to the Civil War, the American mainstream Protestant denominations were somewhat hostile to games and sport (Swanson, 1968). In the second half of the century, following the Civil War,

the attitude of Protestants changed significantly in that sport became an integral part of the missionary and social life of many Protestant churches (Swanson, 1968). During the 1850s, numerous advocates of vigorous exercise, most of them from the intellectual community, began to exhort their fellow citizens toward a more active lifestyle (Lucas, 1968).

In addition to the introduction of specific sports, the immigrant groups reinforced the practice of establishing sport clubs (Houlihan, 1997). Following the Civil War, the New York Athletic Club (NYAC) came under the control of the social elite, becoming the most influential athletic club in the United States (Wettan & Willis, 1976). During the period 1865-1900, the NYAC controlled amateur athletics, was responsible for the promotion and support of track and field, swimming and other amateur sports, sponsored many national sport championships, assisted with the formation of other clubs, and was a driving force in the formation of the NAAAA and AAU (Wettan & Willis, 1976).

The rise of American sport in the late 19th century was inextricably linked to social class-consciousness (Rader, 1977). Prior to 1880, athletic clubs essentially functioned to promote the athletic participation of their members (Willis & Wettan, 1976). In the period from 1901 to 1920, seventeen of the eighteen American and National League baseball teams were run by people with significant political connections (Riess, 1974). At the turn of the century - with an increase in the number of clubs - limitations for athletes, based on their socioeconomic status, were gradually eased (Willis & Wettan, 1976).

To supervise clubs which adopted different rules and regulations, as well as to organize sport meets, sport associations or sport leagues were established. For example, in 1879, the NAAAA was formed with the intent of settling all disputes regarding amateurism, and to help organize national championships in amateur sports (Mechikoff & Estes, 1998). Even though organizations were fairly ineffective in terms of providing supervision, they ushered in a new era of sport leagues in the United States. Following the development of a number of sport organizations, the AAU, an organization formed in 1888, moved to secured control of all amateur competition in the United States in the 1890s.

Between 1870 and World War I, intercollegiate athletics evolved into a significant and formal part of American higher education (Leslie, 1976). Pennsylvania State College was one of the first to legalize the recruitment and payment of athletes when, in 1900, the Board of Trustees sanctioned athletic scholarships to include room, board, and tuition (Smith, 1997).

Prior to the 20th century, disorderly conduct among college students was a problem frequently dealt with by administrators (Welch, 1996). Many players of intercollegiate football were killed or severely injured; players were absent for training and games; and eligibility regulations were abandoned, all of which lead to adverse publicity (Welch, 1996). To regulate and supervise college athletics, in December 1905, the IAA was established (Welch, 1996). The establishment of the IAA was the first nationwide attempt to unite colleges and universities in the sport domain (Welch, 1996). Five years later the IAA was renamed the NCAA and started to fully take charge of collegiate

sports. However, the establishment of the IAA did not prevent the extension of commercialization in intercollegiate sports. By the early twentieth century, there was probably no college that could preserve the classical definition of amateurism in men's sports.

Although the NCAA continued to indulge in the commercialization of football or other sports, it helped to reform the rules of football so that it would remain acceptable (Smith, 1997). The maintenance of eligibility requirements and other rules governing sport relations among the NCAA member institutes constituted the primary responsibilities of the NCAA (O'Hanlon, 1982). Later, the NCAA worked as a supervisor by restricting the transfer of players, limiting the entry of new teams, and bargaining the broadcasting rights for its member institutes. Influenced by a strong amateur ethos and marketability, the NCAA was transformed from a governing body of college sport to a commercial monopoly for intercollegiate sports (Houlihan, 1997). However, regulations dealing with academic study of college athletes were frequently violated (Hult, 1994). Conflicts among school boards, college athletes, and athletic departments were not resolved until the introduction of the Sanity Code. This comprehensive regulation of collegiate sports, that covered amateurism, academic standards, financial aid to athletes, recruiting, and institutional control and responsibilities, was passed in 1946 (Houlihan, 1997).

During World War I, both collegiate and professional sports were restrained as military training was promoted by the government and educators. In 1917, the National Education Association's Committee on Military Training in the Public Schools issued

a report recommending that schools have compulsory physical education for the interests of national unity and security (O'Hanlon, 1982). With the increased military menace, most educators agreed that education should contribute to keeping America mentally and physically prepared for whatever challenges lay ahead (O'Hanlon, 1982). Some colleges and high schools dropped sports and games, deciding to emphasize military drills. However, even with the suppression of sports and the promotion of physical education with military aims, sport participation increased following World War I. Following the 1920s, extensive sport facilities were developed under the aegis of community recreation departments. Opportunities provided at these playgrounds for adults accounted for much of the increased participation in sport (Lewis, 1977).

Another factor that stimulated sport in the United States was the Great Depression of the 1930s. Reduced funding for sports during the early 1930s demonstrated that the country had sunk into a deep economic depression (Welch, 1996). To draw people's attention from the economic crisis, the government increased the development of sport and recreation facilities, which resulted in a good foundation for sports after the Great Depression.

During World War II, millions of Americans were engaged in military service. A large segment of the population conducted physical training and sport activities to build up fitness, which was required by the government. Following World War II, democracy was spreading. The ideologies of sport, including sportsmanship and fair play, were generally utilized to promote the movements for racial and gender equity.

Compared with collegiate sports for men, intercollegiate competition for women

developed slowly. Only a few women's colleges offered sport activities. The onset of World War II provided increased opportunities for women to enter the workplace and thus gave impetus to a change in the status of women both in society and in sport (Weiller & Higgs, 1992). Although limited in the variety of sports and in total members, women did participate in sports during this era, eventually resulting in the development of professional sports for women (Weiller & Higgs, 1992).

Apart from female sports, Black sports also became a battle field for equity and freedom. Following World War II, the situation changed in that the ideals of democracy influenced the public consciousness vis à vis the issue of racial segregation. Some excellent black athletes were recognized by the public through their physical talents as well as their personalities, the latter of which were valued by the mainstream society. The modern Civil Rights Movement, which emerged in the post-war years, drove the democratization of African Americans and created an environment for the further development of black sports.

Historical Background – China Post-1949

The Chinese Communist Party came into power in 1949. As a country just disentangled from a long period of military chaos, China was determined to strengthen its national defense. From October 26th to 27th 1949, a National Physical Education Personnel Conference was held in Beijing (Feng, 1959). The proposal of promoting physical education and sports was generated at the conference and later passed, and the Steering Committee of the All-China Sports Federation was founded.

In 1950, the sport exchange visits between China and the Soviet Union pioneered

China's usage of sport as a vehicle to build friendships with other countries. The athlete exchange program with the Soviet Union provided China an opportunity to construct a structured sport system, which, in turn, accelerated the process of remodeling its own system based on the Soviet pattern. Meanwhile, the American systems for professional and intercollegiate sports, as well as the sport theories generated by American scholars, were harshly criticized.

It was under this influence that China inevitably abandoned the Japanese and American physical education model and adopted the Soviet approach, which emphasized physical and sport techniques rather than recreation and fun. In the early 1950s, the Sport System in Preparation for Labor and Defense, a ranking system for athletes and coaches, was announced to standardize athlete cultivation (Xie, 1990).

In November, 1952, the Central Physical Education and Sports Committee of the People's Government was founded in Beijing; it would later be renamed the SCPES. Provincial, regional, and county-level physical education and sports committees were subsequently established. Later, the SCPES took charge of the majority of responsibilities of the All-China Sports Federation (later renamed the Chinese Olympic Committee) except for sport-related international affairs. Following the guidance of the SCPES, the NSFs were also established in rapid succession.

One of the central responsibilities of the SCPES is to hold the National Games every four years. As the most significant sporting event in China, the National Games are used to examine the effort that each province or municipality exerts on athlete cultivation. The committees of physical education and sports in the county-level or

territory-level also organize competitions to prepare and select athletes for provincial teams.

In 1954, the Beijing Institute of Physical Education set up a graduate school and started to cultivate researchers for sport sciences. Research on sport sciences was also initiated in newly established physical education institutes. The first research institution of sport sciences, the Beijing Institute of Sport Science, was established in 1958 in Beijing. In 1959, a second research institution, the Beijing Kinesiology Institute, was founded. All the research institutions were financed by the government.

In May 1965, the Chinese government established spare-time sport schools in which students could spend half a day on academic study and half a day on training. The model of spare-time sports schools standardized the education of student-athletes, and guaranteed that potential athletes would be delivered to higher levels in the sport system.

In the second half of the 1950s, a political convulsion started to disturb the development of sport. From the 1950s to the 1970s, the development of sport in China was extremely limited by internal political turbulences. During the 1970s, the elite sport system in China was maintained only for political reasons. After the deterioration of the Sino-Soviet diplomatic relationship in 1960, the Chinese government attempted to establish a relationship with the United States. The well-known “Ping-Pong Diplomacy” represented the first steps in establishing diplomatic relations between China and the United States and also provided the Chinese government a new motivation to develop sport.

The Cultural Revolution ended in 1976. The new leader of the Chinese Communist Party, Deng Xiaoping, came into power and started implementing the Reformation and Open Door policies. The short-term goal of the Reformation and Open Door policies of the government was to shake off poverty; and the final goal was to realize modernization in industry, agriculture, education and national defense. This reformation also had a significant impact on sport in China.

Historical Background – the United States of America Post-1949

In the 1950s and 1960s, the era in which professional sports began to flourish, amateur sport also boomed. The development of professional sports relied on commercialization; the development of amateur sports, however, was never free from political influence. Following World War II, the Office of Civilian Defense, which was mainly dedicated to the promotion of physical fitness by the Federal Government, was terminated as military threats decreased.

The Cold War, again, drew the attention of the federal government to amateur sport. Changing the pattern of amateur sport and placing it under its political control, the government emphasized the need to confront other communist countries, especially those from the Soviet Union, within the sphere of sport. Riordan (1993) remarked that under the circumstances of the Cold War, with two “hostile” camps, the USA and the Soviet Union, and the rival military blocs confronting one another - sport became an important arena for competition. When the Communist nations made their debut at the 1952 Olympic summer games, they won twenty-nine percent of the medals; in 1972 they won forty-seven percent, and in the 1976 Olympics they won

fifty-seven percent (Riordan, 1986). The performances of Communist athletes and Capitalist athletes were disproportionate with their respective rates of population and political influence.

During the sport competition between the political superpowers, their success in sport extended the borders of physical superiority and demonstrated the superiority of one political ideology over the other. In addition to governmental assistance for elite sports, sport diplomacy was invented as a political technique by communist countries to build friendships with other countries. To create a positive political image worldwide, the United States adopted this technique from its communist counterparts. In the 1960s, Americans began to organize sport exchange programs to mitigate the influence of sport-cultural exchanges conducted by the Soviet Union (Clumpner, 1984).

In the 1950s, a census showed that the fitness of youth in the United States was inferior to that of their European counterparts (Rader, 1996). Social goals, especially becoming fit enough to meet the perceived threat of the Soviet Union, inspired the establishment of the President's Council on Physical Fitness in 1956 (Rader, 1996). In July 1962, President Kennedy emphasized that physical hardiness enabled Americans to overcome tenacious foes in World War I and II (Mrozek, 1994). The NCAA played a central role in the execution of this governmental policy.

In addition to its political functions, intercollegiate sports furthered its commercialization in the 1950s and 1960s. Continuing its slack administration in the 1940s, the NCAA experienced difficulties in implementing its policies regarding

punishment. To reinforce its governing authority, in 1954, a “Committee on Infraction” was formed; and in 1957, the NCAA’s first full-time investigator was hired (Hult, 1994). However, based on its financial interests, major sport schools have never been punished for breaking policies.

Economic Background – China

Since the Liberation of China in 1949, through a series of violent and forced reformation actions, the communist government successfully realized a fully state-owned economy. Before 1978, China focused on domestic revolutionary politics, class struggles, and national defense. Due to its political isolation from the majority of capitalist countries in the world, the economy in China valued self-reliance, and minimized dependency on the external capitalist economy (Kim, 1990). Products and services were all provided by state-owned enterprises; the amount of consumption for each individual was strictly prescribed. In this environment, the economy of China developed slowly.

Following the death of Mao Zedong in 1976, China’s leadership put revolutionary politics and class struggle aside and set out to make the nation wealthy and powerful (Perkins, 1988). This was the first time that economic development was given priority over politics. China made an effort to increase autonomy and raise productivity of private enterprises. After the reformation, individual businesses had more freedom according to the needs of the market, which, in turn, activated the buyers’ and sellers’ markets of China.

In addition to internal reformation, an outside incentive continues to influence

economic reformation. To shake off penury, China has moved to embrace globalization rather than be satisfied with a domestic autonomy. China's most recent development has been its participation in the capitalist world economy. The shares of imports and exports in gross domestic product (GDP) increased from below 8% in the early 1980s to above 18% in the early 1990s (CSSB, 1993).

The reformation in China's economy, however, has not been without problems. Lead by the reformation, the disparity in financial status contributes to a disparity in social status, which, in turn, results in a series of other social problems. In the meantime, the Chinese government actively adopted a coastal development strategy to turn itself into an export-launching platform for developing labor-intensive and knowledge-intensive industries (Kim, 1990). The strategy has led to this inequity among territories.

Through a series of developments in the economic domain, China has lost some of its basic communist features. To avoid the embarrassment of being a capitalist country or a communist country, the Chinese government began to describe China as a communist country with Chinese characteristics. Under the shield of "Chinese characteristics," the Chinese government has adopted capitalist features without compromising its validity as a communist government.

Elite sports in most Western countries have seldom received governmental support, and some sports even generate considerable revenues. Unlike elite sport in developed capitalist countries, elite sport in communist countries has never been capable of generating revenues. Instead, they have always consumed a significant amount of

resources. With the economic development of China, financial investment in elite sport has increased year by year. According to the data from the China State Statistic Bureau, from 1978 to 1997, the annual average increase of GDP of China was 9.8% (CSSB, 1997). In 1997, the GDP per person was \$729.60 (CSSB, 1997). In the meantime, the financial support of sport has started to increase. In 1987, 0.4 percent of the total national budget was allocated for the development of physical education and sports per fiscal year (Zhang, 1987). When compared with that of mass sports (physical education for the general public), the ratio of financial support for elite sport has increased gradually. (See Figure 7). With economic growth and investment in Olympic athlete cultivation, sport performance of Chinese athletes has boomed since 1978. From 1979 to 1995, Chinese athletes achieved 1,256 international champion titles, which accounts for 97.8% of all the champion titles that have been achieved since 1949 (Editor Committee of Chinese Sport History, 1996).

Even with these economic advancements and increasing investment in Olympic sports, China is still far from meeting its needs as a sporting nation. The great shortage of facilities for physical activities is a very serious problem; indeed, it is the biggest barrier against greater participation in physical activities (Wang & Olson, 1997). Much like other governmental organizations and state-owned enterprises, the SCPES is overstaffed and inefficient in the area of human resources management. Due to the fact there is no need to generate a profit, investment proposals on the cultivation of elite athletes and the building of sport facilities have never been a profit making enterprise. As a result, the cost of cultivating elite sports has always been strikingly high.

Figure 7: 1991~1997 Governmental Financial Support for Elite Sport in China

Year	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
For elite sports (RMB)	400mil.	440mil.	560mil.	600mil.	800mil.	1000mil.	1200mil.
% in the overall investment in sport	22	24	25	30	32	34	30

From: Annual Financial Report, (1997) *Financial Department of the SCPES*.

For the past decade, the government has wanted sport organizations to be responsible for their profits or losses. Following the Reformation and Open Door policies, the government started to adopt some capitalist features which were expected to alleviate the financial burden of Olympic athlete cultivation. These measures included opening sport facilities according to the needs of the market, and encouraging private support in Olympic athlete cultivation, particularly at the grass-roots level. However, an elite sport market and a model for sport business in China are still far from established. Even though the Chinese government wants to withdraw its financial support, there is still a popular drive to maintain sport excellence in China. In fact, financial support for Olympic sports is growing year by year. The successful bid for the 2008 Olympic Summer Games has forced the Chinese government to continue its support of sports. Based on the data provided by CSSB (2001), the investment in the Beijing 2008 Olympic Summer Games will be around \$3.5 billion US dollars.

Economic Background — the United States of America

In the 18th century, the American economy was a peripheral part of the capitalist economy in the world. During the World Wars, most countries in Europe and Asia

became battlefields and underwent severe destructions, while due to its geographic location the mainland of the United States did not suffer any direct damage. It is worth noting, moreover, that the preeminent economic position of the United States was enhanced by the massive economic deterioration that Europeans experienced during World War I and II (Russo, 2000). Following World War II, a triumphant America started to possess an unchallenged economic hegemony which remained uncontested until the mid 1960s (Spulber, 1995). Initially, the government encouraged private business and was reluctant to regulate and control commercial activities. Along with the development of the economy, the government initiated its involvement with a more active role.

Following World War II, the government exerted its political influence on the stabilization of the economy, which was perceived as a distinct feature of communist governments. Following the Great Depression, the federal government worked as a hinge, connecting and balancing supply and demand (Spulber, 1995). In the meantime, the American government increased its commercial investment in civil, educational, and social welfare.

With the economic development following the Vietnam War, as a part of non-governmental services, the sport industry also boomed in the post-war period. The political influence on the economy markedly reduced the negative influence of economic regressions and provided a comfortable environment for the development of sports. The comparably stable economy released more people from the concern of how to make a living, offering them the opportunity to participate in sports. Meanwhile, the

increased governmental investment in education and civil welfare also contributed to the development of sport at the youth level. The significant contribution of the sport industry to the economy quickly revealed itself to be one of the top service industries in the United States and facilitated the government to offer legal privileges for sport leagues and sport organizations to promote sport business on both a professional and amateur level.

Political Background –China

Shortly after its liberation, China became involved in the Korean War, fighting against the United Nations peace-keeping forces in the Korean Peninsula. Before the end of the 1970s, China was isolated by both the majority of capitalist countries and the Soviet Union. After the end of the 1970s, the Chinese government resumed its diplomatic relationship with the United States.

Since the enforcement of the Reformation and Open Door policies in 1978, China's attitude to international political affairs has significantly changed. China started to actively participate in international politics and sought benefits for its participation. All these factors contributed to the government's decision to shift its emphasis away from defense. Influenced by this changing diplomatic concentration, the role of sport changed from reinforcing national security to establishing political friendship and facilitating economic exchanges.

Another evident change is that China is no longer enthusiastic about sponsoring other third world countries' sport facilities or in cultivating sport personnel. It is now focused on its own self-promotion and economic development. Emphasizing

international affairs, cultural, and academic exchanges, China has tried to promote bidirectional communication with other countries. At the same time, the Chinese government has never given up opportunities to send athletes to compete in all kinds of international sports events, a forum through which the government has highlighted the significance of China in international sporting events and tried to form a political and diplomatic orientation- the voice of China should not be ignored.

In the international political arena, the Chinese government has always been criticized for democratic issues, specifically its human right record. This was never more evident than after 1989, and the events in Tiananmen. The result was the international society believed that the democratic progress that had been achieved in China had regressed. The voting procedure, disparity between rural and urban territories, unrestricted judiciary, and secret repression of democratic movements and religions all lead to international criticism. Through the successful hosting of the 1990 Asian Games in Beijing, the Chinese government successfully deflected the criticism and promoted a national image that promoted the Olympic spirit.

From the domestic perspective, the Chinese government intentionally reduced investment in the military through the cancellation of the General Staff Ministry from 1980 to 1982. The GTO was cancelled without public proclamation, which demonstrated the break in the relationship between military training and daily life for the public. Although a dress parade is still a pre-requisite, the association with national defense is waning. Sports that had strong military features, such as throwing grenades for distance, were gradually replaced by Olympic sports (Editor Committee of Chinese

Sport History, 1996).

The Chinese government has also utilized sport to maintain social tranquility and foster patriotism. At the beginning of the 1990s, Eastern Europe was plunged into a social crisis. In the meantime, the Chinese government was also challenged by the chaos brought by its reformation. At the early stage of the reformation, it became clear that the original legal and ethical system was broken, while the new order had not yet been established. This delay resulted in a number of internal problems, especially within the economic domain, as the disadvantages of the reformation came to bear earlier than the advantages.

Some people amassed wealth through illegal or immoral means. The disparity between the rich and the poor increased. More people had opportunities to be exposed to the ideas of political regimes in capitalist countries and started to challenge political status quo in China. The reduced investment in education resulted in numerous rural students losing educational opportunities. It was the combination of all these factors that resulted in the student protest march in 1989, which ended with military suppression in June of 1989 at Tiananmen.

After the tragedy, the Chinese government conducted a media campaign to focus domestic attention on the upcoming 1990 Asian Games in Beijing. The Chinese government promoted the event as a symbol of the renaissance of China, which cultivated patriotism in its youth, and mitigated people's aversion to the government. Nine months after the Tiananmen Affair, China successfully hosted the 1990 Asian Games. The excellent performance of Chinese athletes at the Asian Games allowed the

government to generalize the success of Chinese sports to the success of China as well as the Chinese culture. National cohesion was easily achieved through a sporting event.

Political Background – the United States of America

Based on democratic faith, which promotes freedom and equity, the governmental mechanism of the United States came into existence. During the period of the Civil War (1861 to 1865), the federal government significantly increased its authority to deal with civil rebellion (Russo, 2000). In the Great Depression, the government further extended its influence over civilian affairs. In the meantime, the government used sport to release social pressures by building sporting and recreation facilities. Later, the federal government made favorable judicial interpretations during the 1950s and enacted far-reaching civil rights legislation during the 1960s and 1970s, through which gender and racial discrimination in the sporting domain was prohibited by the law (Russo, 2000).

Since the establishment of the Soviet Union in 1917, the capitalist world at large was suffused with a fear of communism. Never stopping in its resistance to communism, the United States attempted to keep the influence of communism under its control. However, the geographic isolation of the United States ensured the country would remain apart from the influence of Europe and Asia. Given its relative isolation, and with a sense of security, the American government made domestic affairs its primary focus, while at the same time avoiding international entanglements (Gabriel, 1974). For example, in the 1936 Olympic Summer Games, the United States did not

criticize fascism in public, but instead promoted Jesse Owens as a national hero. During World War II, the government made arduous efforts to promote physical education and military drills in the interest of national defense.

Since World War II, the United States has become the leader of the capitalist society. In the name of promoting democracy, the foreign policy of the American government has become more active and aggressive than ever before. Its promotion of democracy abroad in the broadest sense reflects an understanding of how to create a stable international political order in pursuit of a comfortable and secure environment (Ikenberry, 2000). This aggressive diplomatic orientation of the American government became more evident during the Cold War era particularly during its conflicts with the Soviet Union. The diplomatic strategy was also utilized in the sport domain.

Since World War II, the policy makers of the United States have recognized that national security must be achieved through collective undertakings, thereby developing American policy within the framework of the United Nations against communist influence (Gabriel, 1974). Under the leadership of the United States, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization was established to prevent Communism from moving eastward to Europe. However, the communist countries were also united in resisting pressures from the capitalist world. As perceived by communist countries, the Olympic movement had capitalist characteristics and was severely jeopardized by some large scale sport meets organized by communist countries and emerging countries in Africa and Asia.

In addition to its efforts in Europe, the United States also tried to strengthen its

command in Asia. In order to guard against the threat of atheistic communism, to promote democracy in China, and to block the military influence of Japan upon Asia, the United States government established a friendship with the Kuomintang government under the leadership of Chiang Kai-shek. During this period, the American government diplomatically and militarily assisted Kuomintang during the Civil War with the Chinese Communist Party. The victory of the Chinese Communist Party in the Civil War directly changed Sino-American relations. It further exacerbated Sino-American relations and made the task of political accommodation more difficult (Stoessinger, 1990). The military inefficiency in Vietnam inflamed the domestic anti-war movement and severely challenged the diplomatic policies of the United States. The negative consequences of the Korean War, the Vietnam War, and the Cold War against communism led the United States in a new direction to promote its democracy.

When the Cold War ended with the collapse of the Soviet Union, the United States was left as the world's only super power. The United States, as the most dominant power, automatically carries the responsibility of keeping the world on the track to democracy. On the other hand, the American government realized that a vigorous campaign of democracy in certain areas, such as China, the Muslim world, and Africa, may not bring a favorable outcome to the United States (Smith, 2000). A comparatively conciliatory attitude was adopted in its new foreign policy with cultural imperialism as its central guideline. Except for business exchanges, the exchanges and communication in the sport domain became one of the most efficient channels for its

cultural penetration.

Social and Cultural Background – China

As summarized by Russo (2000), the social features of China assume a pervasive hierarchical structure: a peasant majority with a small middle class, in which families and castes and clans determine status, and a high density population in both rural areas and cities. Chinese society values group efforts and group kudos. The hierarchical society was and remains patriarchal and male-dominated. Education was highly respected. Since the Chinese society was the most densely populated society in the world, to sustain its population, an intensive agriculture program was adopted. Within a peaceful environment that was dominated by an agricultural activity, people adopted spiritual regimens, such as Yoga and Qigong, to achieve harmony of their bodies and minds (Lu, 2000).

Since Confucianism became the dominant ideology in China during the Han Dynasty (206 B.C. – A.D. 220), Chinese society has started to emphasize a stable social hierarchy and spiritual ethos. Deeply influenced by Confucianism, the aesthetic standard in ancient China valued ethics over physical haleness, which prevented the development of sport. Scholar-bureaucrats used spiritual aesthetics to highlight their honorable status, which, in turn, depreciated the values of physical excellence. Promoted by feudalistic governors, Confucianism profoundly informed all aspects of Chinese culture. Even today, its influence on Chinese society is still evident. Confucianism values the traditional belief that men are superior to women, and in the traditional Chinese hierarchy, women were inferior in male-dominated families.

Women were severely disadvantaged in educational, financial, and political perspectives.

From the end of the Tang dynasty (A.D. 618-907) to the Song dynasty (A.D. 1368-1644), Confucianism was promoted to an extreme degree with the application of foot-binding for women. Due to these disadvantages, in the following hundred years, except for those women in minorities, most Chinese women were isolated from physical activities. Women who became involved in physical activities in front of the public were belittled.

Since the Liberation in 1949, China entered an era in which Communism prevailed over all other ideologies, including most religions. Communism replaced Confucianism and became the dominant ideology. Before 1949, the Chinese Communist Party had started to promote feminism. The Chinese Communist Party highly promoted feminism by passing the Marriage Law, the Female Rights and Interests Protection Law, and Law of Compulsory Education. Special funds were allocated for girls who were unable to attend schools for economic reasons. Excellent female scientists, scholars, and athletes were promoted as role models for the overall society. During the post-1949 period, the disparity between different social hierarchical levels was reduced; therefore, the tension lead by conflicts between social classes was lessened.

Following the death of Mao Zedong and the ending of the Cultural Revolution, Chinese people confronted a breakdown in their belief system. People suddenly lost their idol and realized the possibilities inherent in the wealth of capitalist countries as

well as the capitalist ideology. On the other hand, corruption and polarization of financial status aggravated the discontent of people. Discontentment, in turn, compromised the national confidence of the Chinese people.

To rebuild people's confidence, the Chinese government adopted a series of measures to cultivate patriotism and promote Chinese culture. Promotion of elite sport and setting images for youth became an efficient approach to promote national confidence. Successful athletes are propagandized as national heroes by the government media to promote nationalism. For example, from 1981 to 1982 and from 1984 to 1986, the Chinese female volleyball team continued to hold the title of international champion in tournaments and the Olympic Games. Under the influence of the government media, the whole country began to follow the mantra of "study from the female volleyball team." However, the female volleyball players were forced to be trained with elite male volleyball players and constantly involved in overtime training. Despite the inhumane training of the volleyball team, the success was highly praised by the government for political concerns.

During this period of Olympic athlete cultivation, other unethical phenomena affected China a series of events which would also resonate with its cultural backgrounds. The Chinese government constantly devoted a huge amount of resources into a number of potential athletes, while the average person's involvement in sports remained unrealistic due to his or her financial situation. Meanwhile, China was also criticized for its training of youth athletes, especially some sports in which China had a leading position. Yet, another ethical focus of sport in China was the issue of drug

usage by elite athletes. Notorious images of Chinese female swimmers and track athletes typified this notion of “win at any cost.”

Those scandals demonstrate a perspective of sports in China antithetical to the value of the mainstream world. Ideological differences that pervade every aspect of Chinese culture, specifically ethical beliefs, have led to the gap between China and the outside world. Influenced by Confucianism, Chinese culture values consideration of the overall situation rather than problems that may arise from the minutia of daily life. As a populous developing country, and in an effort to maintain continuous development, China has to compromise in some aspects which may mean bringing harm to certain groups. On an individual level, Confucianism advocates the forfeiture of private interests for the benefit of the nation.

In the sporting domain, some damaged lives resulted in success on a national level; therefore, the larger issue of ethics is still not a practical concern for most Chinese people. Young athletes are educated to accept the notion that winning can glorify the nation. Even though drug usage is deleterious to the health of athletes, few athletes are concerned, because they believe that it is necessary to glorify the nation as well as to benefit themselves. Until recently, the Chinese public still believed that athletes bear special responsibilities for the nation. For example, soccer athletes were recently punished for drinking in bars during their leisure time; and female table-tennis athletes were criticized for having boyfriends. Those athletes who decided to stand up and fight for their rights would not find much sympathy from society.

With globalization, the external ethical and democratic ideology has gradually

impacted and altered the inherent ethics in China. Recent examples include a female gymnastics athlete who intended to resolve her health insurance dispute in the courts; female track athletes who left their inhumane coach collectively; and a male basketball athlete who plays for the NBA and refused to play on the national team. These phenomena have deeply shocked the Chinese ethical system and urged the Chinese government to initiate reformation. With further involvement in globalization, the social and cultural environment of China will continue to change.

Social and Cultural Background – the United States of America

All human societies have always been and shall remain hierarchical in nature (Russo, 2000). In American society, wealth determines social status. Before industrialization, planters possessed the highest social status. Following the boom of industrialization and the decline of the plantation economy, finance oligarchs, capitalists, and industrialists replaced the planters and occupied the top level of the social and economic hierarchy with labor workers and farmers at the bottom.

Despite the prosperity the 1920s brought to many middle-class Americans, the disparity in social hierarchy was remarkably enlarged during the eras of World War I and II. The polarization of the economic status was exacerbated before the Great Depression. Mass industrial unemployment, depressed wages, the downward spiraling of the industrial and agricultural economy, pervasive and visible poverty in rural and urban areas, and a resurgence of labor activism brought turbulence to society (Fitzpatrick, 2002). In addition to the disparity in social and economic status, the

disparity among different ethnicities was also evident.

The government enacted segregation laws, separating blacks and whites, laws that were upheld by federal courts in the late 19th century (Russo, 2000). African Americans were suppressed at the bottom of the social hierarchy. Following the victory of the Civil War, segregation laws were abolished. However, African Americans were still severely disadvantaged from economic, educational, and political perspectives.

Along with the discrimination felt by minority groups in the United States, women experienced gender discrimination and struggled for equity. In 1920, a constitutional amendment pioneered the first step to realize gender equity on the franchise for women on legal grounds. Feminist movements in the United States reached a peak in the 1960s. Along with the unremitting efforts exerted by feminists, more consciousness of the entire society on the issue of gender equity also contributed to the higher social status of females. In the education and sport domains, Title IX was passed in the early 1970s indicating further gender equity within the sphere of sport participation.

Chapter V

JUXTAPOSITION

Identification of Potential Athletes

As the first step of Olympic athlete cultivation, identification of potential athletes determines the effectiveness and efficiency of the system of Olympic athlete cultivation. This section divides identification of potential athletes into four categories: the role the government plays; motivation of athletes to partake in sport training; techniques of identification; and approaches of identification. For each section, juxtaposition is conducted between China and the United States.

More or less, all governments in the world have certain effects on Olympic athlete cultivation. Some governments intentionally intervene in all the stages of the process of Olympic athlete cultivation; others only intervene in the cultivation of elite athletes. Some governments have dominant authority over potential athlete identification; others allow individual interests to guide the direction of Olympic athlete cultivation. Also, the goals and degrees of government involvement are different.

Role of the Government – China

In China, the government directly intervenes in Olympic athlete cultivation. The role that the Chinese government plays is closely related to the historical and political background of China, particularly the communist political background. Since the establishment of the SCPES in 1952, the Chinese government has treated Olympic athlete cultivation as one of its governmental functions, partially due to the political

influence of the Soviet Union and limited economic resources (Editor Committee of Chinese Sport History, 1996). Under this mission, the Chinese government never disguises its intention - using sport as the tool to realize its political and diplomatic goals.

The Chinese government has controlled human resources for its system of Olympic athlete cultivation. All personnel that worked for the SCPES and its attached organizations hold governmental positions at the same time. The majority of these officials have membership in the Chinese Communist Party. Any appointment, promotion, or demotion has to be approved by communist committees.

The Chinese government has financially supported the identification of potential athletes. The financial involvement of the government is partially determined by the limited financial resources of most Chinese families who cannot undertake the expenses for the entire process of Olympic athlete cultivation. Therefore, identification of potential athletes is mostly conducted by coaches in primary or spare-time sport schools, which carry responsibility for cultivation of grass-roots athletes. Since these schools are basically not-for-profit, the government had to be financially responsible for facility construction, maintenance as well as compensations for staff members. To guarantee enough potential candidates to be selected to higher-level organizations, the government rarely considers its costs.

Since the Reformation and Open Door policies in 1978, civilian wealth, especially for urban families, has dramatically increased. In the same year, to control the population boom, the Chinese government started to adopt the “One Child” policy

in urban areas. The two policies continue to drive urban families to provide better education for their children. Many parents are enthusiastic about training their children with sports techniques, a strategy which has facilitated the identification of potential athletes. These parents invest in sport schools or sport clubs, reducing the financial pressure on the government. Therefore, the authority wielded by the government in identifying potential athletes has gradually decreased with its weakening financial support; at the same time, more private funds have been allocated for potential athlete identification and cultivation.

As the central organization responsible for the entire process of Olympic athlete cultivation in China, some believe that the SCPES is but one branch of the Chinese government. On the contrary, the Chinese Olympic Committee (COC), the national Olympic organization of China recognized by the IOC, does not play a significant role in Olympic athlete cultivation. In China, the COC is mainly responsible for sport related diplomatic affairs under the leadership of the SCPES and is operated as the public relations department of the SCPES. Even though the COC claims itself as a non-governmental, non-profit national sports organization, it cannot command diplomatic affairs independently, but has to follow the instruction of the SCPES.

Role of the Government – USA

In the United States, cultivation of athletes is related more to individual interests than the interests of the government. Geographic isolation has allowed the United States to avoid most military conflicts; therefore, the pressure on the government to promote sport for its political interests is comparatively weak. Accordingly, its social

ideology values freedom and self-interest in the sport domain. From a political perspective, its democratic ideology does not encourage the government to use its influence to intervene in civilian affairs, including sport. It was agreed that the government should facilitate the reorganization of sport into a more efficient system, but that the government should not run sport (Chalip, 1995). Also, for athletes with high-level performances, the government indirectly offers some benefits or services through sport organizations or educational organizations, but it is not involved in direct administration, especially the grass-roots level. On the Olympic level, the USOC is a federally chartered non-profit organization accountable to the American people and Congress and is fully responsible for selection of Olympic athletes, administration of national Olympic teams, pooling financial resources for short term training of the Olympic national teams, and related expenses. Financially independent from the federal government, the USOC has the authority to control all affairs related with Olympic movement in the United States.

Since the Great Depression, the government of the United States has assisted in the identification of athletes by providing all kinds of sports and recreation facilities, which have provided the prerequisite for grass-roots sport training. Sport and recreation facilities that receive governmental funds can be divided into two categories: facilities that are attached to public educational institutes, and those with community parks or recreation centers. Educational institutes receive funds appropriated from the governmental budgets. For facilities in local communities, financial support comes directly from local governments. Many sport clubs and teams

for local youth are located in these facilities.

Even though the government financially contributes to the identification of potential athletes, it does not have as one of its goals the cultivation of elite athletes. Focusing on developing healthy citizens, the government does not strictly emphasize the efficiency of the improvement of sport performance. At the grass-roots level, the American education system encourages students to develop an interest in sport activities and promotes the socialization of students, which, in turn, cultivates a strong motivation of youth to participate in sport.

Motivation of Athletes

Sport is created by people interacting, using their skills and interests to make sport into something that meets their interests and needs (Coakley, 1990, p. 375). Coakley (1990) also distinguished play from sport in terms of whether the activity is carried out for its own sake or for extrinsic purposes. Strong internal motivation for sport involvement is one of the indispensable factors that contribute to sport excellence. The motivations of adult athletes could be classified according to the following reasons: monetary benefits; reputation; personal hobbies; and self-ambitions. Adult athletes can consciously realize their motivation; however, for most youth athletes, due to their ages, limited experiences, and the external influences to which they have been subjected, they may not be able to clearly identify their motivations. In this case, the families always dominate the decision making process for youth athletes. The differences in political, economic, social and cultural backgrounds also contribute to the motivations of athletes as well as those of their

families. Female athletes and those who are from rural areas are significant disadvantaged on choosing sports.

Motivation of Athletes – China

Prior to 1978, Chinese athletes were educated within a system that placed achieving glory for China as their major duty. Monetary benefits were seldom awarded to excellent athletes. However, based on the performances of athletes, they were awarded honorary titles and assigned secure governmental positions.

With the economic reformation taking place in China, monetary compensation started to be awarded to elite athletes. Since its introduction, the amount of compensation has increased year by year. Even with monetary awards, the Olympic athlete cultivation system that is controlled by the government still endeavors to educate athletes to ignore extrinsic values while valuing patriotism. For youth athletes, due to their inability to make rational decisions by themselves, the motivation of most grass-root athletes is influenced by their family backgrounds and coaches. Athletes from families with different financial and social status have multiple motivations. Rural-based athletes perceive participating sport training as a means to disengage themselves from poverty. Compared with their rural-based counterparts, athletes from urban areas are more motivated to participate sport training for enjoyment, and possible monetary benefits in the future.

Since the late 1980s, China started to promote comprehensive education over academic education. To realize this reformation, the grade on the National Exam of College Entrance was no longer the only criteria used to evaluate each collegiate

applicant. Students who excel at sports, arts, music, or have enjoyed other achievements could be admitted with lower scores. To help their children avoid fierce peer competition, many families hope their children will develop sport techniques and treat sport training as a means to attaining a better education. Based on the limited opportunities available and the career value associated with collegiate education, the motivation of parents is strong and persistent. In other cases, parents would like their children to conduct physical activities for health reasons. Except for the most outstanding individuals, most grass-roots athletes are supported by family funds. Because of the slim chance of their children achieving international performance level success and the relatively short career of athletes in general, most urban parents maintain a negative attitude toward their children becoming full-time athletes. The only exception would be those parents who have achieved recognition in certain sports and could provide privileges for their children on their path to success. In most cases, urban parents prefer sports that are technique oriented, such as ball games, rather than sports that need intensive drills. On the other hand, following the commercialization of sport in China, a number of parents, who have realized the potential merits of being a professional athlete, are willing to pay for training of sports with mass markets, such as soccer and tennis.

The huge disparity between urban and rural territories has lead to contradictory attitudes toward participation in physical activities at early ages. Compared with their urban counterparts, children in rural areas have fewer chances to become involved in sports. With limitations in family financial aid and comparatively weak expectations

for higher education, parents in rural areas are not willing to contribute to education as well as the unproductive physical activities of their children. Due to the low return rate of elementary education, many rural parents have even forced their children to quit school.

Most athletes from rural areas have been discovered by coaches on sport teams or from sport schools. Once rural children are granted the opportunities to get involved in sport training with governmental funding, their parents always feel pleasure for their children who may be able to break away from rural poverty. Because they do not have a strong preference for a particular sport or there are fewer sports for them to choose, most athletes from rural areas become involved in sports with tedious training, such as long-distance running and weight-lifting.

Motivation of Athletes – USA

In the United States, the involvement of youth in sport is typically encouraged by parents, school administrators, and community leaders. This is generally because it is considered as a very effective setting for learning social values and beliefs and cultivating character traits (Frey & Eitzen, 1991). In a study by Rowley and Graham (1999), few children were described as being “self-motivated,” and only a small number were identified by a coach as talented and invited to participate.

To parents, sport activities help children learn first hand social skills and rules. Also, sport teaches proper values such as self-discipline, sportsmanship, and an appreciation for hard work, competition, and goal attainment (Frey & Eitzen, 1991). Also, some parents expect their children to be graceful and elegant by practicing some

sports, such as figure skating, dancing, and artistic gymnastics. Generally, children's first experiences with sports are highly encouraged by parents who have little expectation for future extrinsic merits. The person who has the most significant influence upon a young athlete's decision to take part in more intensive training is the coach (Frey & Eitzen, 1991). College aged athletes have exhibited both high internality and high externality for success (Barton, 1990).

As well as support from families, educational organizations also contribute to student participation in sport. In 1992, over 80% of high school seniors participated in a school-sponsored extracurricular activity (US Department of Education, 1995). Compared with Chinese youth, youth in the United States experience less academic pressure and career pressure, which provides them the freedom and time to partake in sports. Therefore, even though the participation in school sports may jeopardize the educational performance of student-athletes (Eide & Ronan, 2001), the conventional opinion about sport, which highlights the positive aspects of sport, still dominates the behaviors of most people.

The disparity between families in terms of social and economic status also influences the choices that children make when choosing to participate in sports. Studies conducted in North America have shown that social class has a considerable effect upon participation in intensive training (Macintosh, 1982). It is also possible that children from lower socio-economic classes begin to participate in sports but drop-out or change their involvement pattern as a result of financial limitations (Rowley & Graham, 1999). Parents from lower socioeconomic classes may

experience financial hardship when supporting their children who participate in sports that require higher standards of facility maintenance and professional coaching. For instance, children from working class families rarely take part in swimming and tennis (Rowley & Graham, 1999). In such cases, parents always encourage their children to participate in some sports that are more accessible and affordable.

Due to the highly commercialized sport market, some parents encourage their children to partake in sports for profit, and in doing so indoctrinate their children to follow the career path of professional sports. Athletes of a lower socioeconomic status have a higher expectation for monetary benefit from sport training than those of a higher social status. Young African American athletes, especially those who are highly motivated by their communities to become involved in sporting activities and training, expect to change their social status through their sporting endeavors.

Generally, American parents encourage their children to participate in sports for the social and potential commercial values associated with sport excellence. Based on their financial and social status, their capabilities of financial support for their children differ. Coaches do not perform a significant role in identifying talent, but are critical in persuading young athletes to participate in intensive training.

Techniques for Potential Athletes Identification

As the first step in the process of Olympic athlete cultivation, identification of potential athletes is the most critical, since it shapes the efficiency and effectiveness of Olympic athlete cultivation. Background differences between China and the United States have caused the two countries to adopt distinct techniques in athlete

identification.

Techniques for Potential Athlete Identification – China

In China, potential athlete identification, scientific training, and scientific administration are regarded as the three most significant factors of sport performance enhancement. Some Chinese scholars even place potential identification in the foremost position. The amount of financial support from the government limits the number of potential athletes that could be selected; therefore, the accuracy of potential identification is critical. Before the 1980s, Chinese coaches relied on experiences and intuition in potential athlete selection. However, since the beginning of the 1980s, the government has started to sponsor scientific research into the potential identification of elite athletes (Editor Committee of Chinese Sport History, 1996).

Genetics is the fundamental scientific principle upon which potential identification is based. Even though the probability of genetic variability exists, it is always ignored because of the comparative stability of genetic variability. The offspring of excellent athletes are paid particular attention and offered privileges as a way of developing sport skills. For instance, when Yao Ming was a teenager and did not possess the traits of a potential player, the issue of how to cultivate him had been a matter of discussion in academia, because both his parents used to be excellent basketball players.

Another foundation of the potential identification of elite athletes is based on the quality of performances and the presence of individual traits. To select athletes who already have achieved certain levels, the early rounds of selection are primarily based

on the performance of peer athletes. However, the selection based on performance is limited where youth athlete identification is concerned. Young athletes who experience an earlier adolescence than their peers always demonstrate better performance in formative athlete identification. To the contrary, athletes who experienced a delayed adolescence usually show more potential for long-term development.

Personal traits evaluation is used to compensate the limitation of performance-based selection. Personal traits can be divided into three categories: morphological traits; functional traits; and psychological traits. Different sports place different emphases on personal traits. For example, identification of potential basketball players is more focused on stature and speed, which are morphological traits, while identification of marksman focuses on psychological features.

Techniques for Potential Athlete Identification – USA

In the United States, the cultivation of athletes is mainly financed by families. The government does not take responsibility for identification of grass roots athletes. For both parents and young athletes, the motivation of sport participation is diverse, and the notion of “all for success” is not strong at the grass roots level. A stable national economy allows sports participation and intensive training to become popular throughout the entire society; therefore, the requirements of accurate potential identification are low. Without any external pressure of achieving certain performance levels, coaches in the United States do not promote techniques of identification of potential athletes

This widespread accessibility to sports allows more children to become involved in professional or semi-professional training, which prepares a large base of athletes who possess certain capabilities or skills for selection. The selection of athletes in the United States is always conducted within a pool of excellent adult athletes. Coaches do not need to forecast the future achievement of athletes; therefore, the only criterion of selection is performance.

Approaches to Potential Athlete Identification

Identification of athletes is conducted by different organizations or groups and through different approaches. The effective use of different approaches is more evident in China than in the United States.

Approaches to Potential Athlete Identification – China

In China, according to different categories of sports, diverse approaches to potential identification are adopted. For sports that enjoy mainstream popularity, such as track and field, table tennis, badminton, and soccer, the sports organizations organize selection events on a regular interval to identify potential athletes. These selection events are run in the same way as common competitions with formal registration, group rankings, and presentation of prizes and trophies.

Under the influence of a unique political and historical background, the SCPES fully controls these identification events on a national scale, and has established a well organized hierarchy for athlete selection. Regional and provincial committees of physical education and sports also organize selection events on a local scale. Candidates for selection come from boarding sport schools, schools that have sport

teams, and local sport clubs. Regional and provincial committees of physical education and sports are responsible for farming out candidates to national level sport teams and are proud of sending successful candidates. Sometimes, in order to enlarge the selection pool, all students in common schools are allowed to participate in the selection process.

Except for the performance of athletes in selection events, good references from his or her current coaches also help the athlete to compete at a higher level. Once an athlete enters a sport school, his or her performance and personal traits will be recorded and filed as reference data for future selection. The file will follow the athlete if he or she transfers to any other sports organization.

To meet its political and diplomatic goals efficiently, the Chinese government found that for some sports, elite performances are easier to achieve. For these sports, which do not have a popular base or commercial market, such as female weight lifting and shooting, the identification of potential athletes is conducted directly by the coaches of provincial or regional sport teams. The scope of potential identification is wide; and the criteria of the selection are not standardized but are based on the preferences of individual coaches. There are two fundamental approaches for the identification of athletes for such kinds of sports. First, the coaches visit primary or middle schools to select students who possess the appropriate traits and superior sport capabilities. In this case, candidate students usually have limited, if any, related experience in the sport. One such example would be female weight-lifting. Second, coaches can choose from athletes who already have established a solid foundation in a

similar sport. For example, many successful diving athletes in China were previously elite gymnasts.

Approaches to Potential Athlete Identification – USA

Without a systematic framework for the identification of potential athletes, the United States has a comprehensive process for selection of elite athletes for high-level competitions, such as the Olympic Games and international tournaments. Authorized by the USOC, the organizer of selection competitions is not responsible for the long-term training of athletes. The short-term training camps for the national teams before competitions does not play the most critical role in sport performance; therefore, identification techniques of potential athletes are not as significant as they are in China.

Selection of high school athletes in the United States is mainly conducted on the coaches' behalf. Performance and physical attributes are the main factors for evaluation of athletes. Because there is not a systematic procedure to follow, the selection is a match between the interests of the schools and student-athletes.

Rather than a systematic evaluation based upon predetermined criteria, selection of athletes at the college level is best described as a haphazard process (Reynaud, 1998). Through a recruiting service, in-person evaluation, or by watching a video tape of skills, the recruitment of the student begins when a prospective student-athlete is identified by the university coaching staff (Reynaud, 1998). Because of the benefits that the student-athletes can bring to the schools, coaches or recruiters in colleges always send invitations and make promises of benefits for student-athletes. Except for

sport performance, the selection of college athletes must follow the regulations established by the NCAA to keep their eligibilities valid, such as reaching the minimum standard for academic study to maintain the emphasis on educational purpose of the NCAA.

Collegiate Sports

Both in China and the United States, athletes can be enrolled in colleges and universities and, at the same time, engage in intensive sport training and academic study. Student-athletes could participate in sport competitions as the representatives of the schools in which they are enrolled. By following some guidelines, elite student-athletes can also compete at the international level. The comparison between China and the United States in terms of collegiate athletics will be divided into the following sections: the reasons to recruit student-athletes on the collegiate level; the procedures and prerequisites for admission; and administration of student-athletes.

Reasons for Collegiate Sports – China

The emergence of student-athletes in colleges and universities was closely related with the historical background of China. The first occurrence followed the establishment of the People's Republic of China in 1949. Under the leadership of the SCPES, six national-level physical education institutes came into existence to meet the severe demands for sport instructors and teachers.

Currently, in an attempt to cultivate sport educators, these institutes recruit students with sport abilities and offer these students related curriculum and sport training. These student-athletes have to maintain their academic progress as well as

sport performance to obtain a bachelor degree of education. At the same time, student-athletes who have outstanding performances are also eligible to compete at the national and international levels.

With the Reformation and Open Door policies, effective cultivation of elite athletes became one governmental strategy. Inevitably, physical education institutes, directly under the rule of the SCPES, were utilized to realize the governmental strategy. This emphasis on elite sports has lead to the neglect of academic study in these institutes in that athletes are not required to excel in academic knowledge but only sport performance. This, in turn, has led to the generally low academic performance of student-athletes. To recruit enough student-athletes, these physical education institutes have reduced their academic prerequisites for applicants.

The knowledge level of some famous athletes is just equivalent to that of elementary school graduates; therefore, some of these athletes still cannot reach the low academic standard required by physical education institutes. The low academic level of athletes has resulted in difficulty obtaining employment after their retirement from sport competition. To relieve this concern by athletes, the SCPES issued a new policy with the State Committee of Education. The new policy offers excellent athletes the opportunities to study in colleges and universities without examination. Another goal of the policy is to compensate athletes for their contribution to the nation, as well as encourage athletes to maintain their involvement in intensive training.

Reasons for Collegiate Athletics – USA

Collegiate sports have a longer history than professional sports in the United States. The organizer of intercollegiate sports, the NCAA, has a clear statement identifying its primary purpose: To initiate, stimulate and improve intercollegiate athletic programs for student-athletes and develop educational leadership, physical fitness, sports participation as a recreational pursuit and sport excellence (National Collegiate Athletic Association, 2002).

The basic purpose of this association is to maintain intercollegiate sports as an integral part of the educational program and the athlete as an integral part of the student body, and, by so doing, retain a clear line of demarcation between collegiate sports and professional sports.

Throughout the developmental process of collegiate sports, however, the NCAA has not maintained its original principle. It has followed a path away from amateurism. Nowadays, much like other commercial activities, intercollegiate sports, especially intercollegiate football and basketball, are fully focused on maximizing commercial profits.

Colleges and universities enthusiastically recruit elite student-athletes with the promise of benefits, in that the successful performance of athletes increases the amount of alumni donations and educational contribution to the school. The generosity of alumni donors is especially appealing among the Division I football and basketball programs. The success of student-athletes not only benefits the athletic and recreational departments, but also facilitates the academic development of their

schools. Based on the research of Rhoads and Gerking (2000), the long-standing sport traditions appear to generate academic benefits in the form of increased charitable donations from all sources. In the meantime, the NCAA also recruits student-athletes in Division II and III, thereby emphasizing on sport participation.

The Procedures and Prerequisites for Admission of Student-Athletes

Due to the different goals of cultivating student-athletes in China and the United States, the procedures and prerequisites for admission to higher education schools are also different.

Procedures and Prerequisites for Admission – China

In China, the admission procedures and prerequisites are different for student-athletes who have made significant achievements in common high-schools or sport schools. In order to promote sport excellences, the SCPES and the State Committee of Education constitute regulation for collegiate entrance of student-athletes and keep modifying the regulation periodically. From an academic perspective, student-athletes in regular high schools need to take the National Exam of College Entrance; student-athletes in sport schools need to take an exam equivalent to the National Exam of College Entrance but with a lower degree of academic difficulty. The admitting score of student-athletes is lower than that of common students (See Figure 8). Because academic examinations in China are not standardized, the admitting score for student-athletes fluctuates year by year.

Figure 8: Points Awarded for Standards Achieved in Official Competition.

• Sport Ranking	• Point awarded in National Exam
• International Standard	• Direct access to university
• National Standard	• Direct access to university
• First Ranking	• Direct access to university. Only applies to certain sports, but includes track and field, swimming, soccer, volleyball
• First to Second Ranking	• Up to 200 points (but five years for the degree rather than the usual four)
• Second Ranking	• 30 points
• Third Ranking	• 20 points

From: Cited by Jones, R. Sport and PE in school and university. In J. Riordan, &

R. Jones, *Sport and physical education in China*. from Chengdu (1995) (p. 96).

In terms of sport performance, student-athletes from high schools have to achieve the title of National Athlete II in at least one sport; student-athletes from sport schools should achieve the title of National Athlete Level I, which requires better sport performance than the National Athlete Level II. In general, student-athletes are first required to take sport performance tests held by colleges or universities. Qualified student-athletes are eligible for the academic test. Only those who pass both sport and academic tests can be enrolled in colleges. In the end, most admitted student-athletes choose physical education or coaching in physical education institutes or physical education departments in normal colleges.

For athletes with recognizable sport achievements, the admission procedure is more flexible. This includes those athletes who served on provincial or even national teams, while some even broke records or achieved medals in international competitions. They have the privilege of choosing schools and majors freely. Most well-known universities also want to attract these athletes as they will be included

among their prestigious alumni. The major selection for these successful athletes is based upon their self-interests. The prerequisite of admission of student-athletes is provided in Figure 9, which is based on the personal experience of the author.

Procedures and Prerequisites for Admission – USA

The colleges and universities that hold memberships in the NCAA have to follow the NCAA's regulations with student-athlete recruitment. Based on the number of sports that the school supports, member institutions of the NCAA are classified into three categories: Division I, II, and III. The NCAA Board of Directors dictates financial, scheduling, attendance, and facility requirements for member institutions in each division (Norris, 2003). The consequences for failing to meet these requirements can subject an institution to enforcement procedure or reclassification by the NCAA (2002-2003 NCAA Division I Manual). For each division, the NCAA has established admission academic requirements for student-athletes.

Figure 9: Admission Prerequisites and Major Selection of Student-Athletes in China

Types of applicants	Requirements on physical performance	Requirements on academic study	Schools and majors
Student-athletes in regular high school	The title of National Athlete Level II	Satisfactory score on the National Exam of College Entrance	Physical institutes or normal college; physical education
Student-athletes in sport school	The title of National Athlete Level I	Satisfactory score on equivalent exam as the National Exam	Same as above but focus on coaching
Athletes in provincial or national team	National or international records	None	Based on the self-interest of athletes

According to information on the 2002-2003 NCAA Guild for the College-Bound

Student-Athlete web site (<http://www.ncaa.org/eligibility/cbsa/div1recruiting.html>), student-athletes who want to enter a Division I or II college are required to provide a satisfactory grade-point average on core-courses plus a qualified score on a standardized exam, commonly referred to as the SAT or the ACT. Meanwhile, student-athletes have to complete a core curriculum of at least 13 academic course units.

For sport performance, the NCAA does not indicate the standard for each sport, but gives the authority to its member institutions to evaluate the sport performance of prospective student-athletes. Student-athletes have to wait for the invitation from colleges or universities. To avoid unfair competition for student-athletes among its membership institutions, the NCAA strictly indicates the appropriate time and manners that schools can contact prospective student-athletes. The final decision of college admission is still made by each member institution of the NCAA. The recruitment procedures for student-athletes who apply to Division III schools are generally same as that for Division I and II schools.

Administration of Student-Athletes

Administration of student-athletes is influenced by various factors, which include the general social backgrounds, specific policies of institutions, the original mission of collegiate sports, and the degree of the commercialization of collegiate sports.

Administration of Student-Athletes—China

In Chinese colleges and universities, the administration of students has undergone a dramatic change since the execution of the Reformation and Open Door policies in

the 1980s. The dominance of communist ideology has been gradually weakened, which has provided a more lenient atmosphere for colleges and universities. Accordingly, the students have more authority and freedom to develop a philosophy and to follow their own life styles.

For student-athletes in physical education institutions, a military style management model was adopted for student administration. Student-athletes were required to get up with reveille for morning exercises, and to follow strict schedules for every daily activity, such as meals, sleep, study, and recreation. Since the middle 1990s, the restrictions on student-athletes have eased. Currently, except for meeting the minimum standards of academic and sport performance, student-athletes have the authority to make decision of their lives. Most student-athletes have tended to shift their attention from sport competition to other self-interests.

At the same time, Chinese institutions hold a neutral attitude towards student-athletes getting involved in business or related affairs. Even though these institutions highlight that the foremost responsibility of students, including student-athletes, is academic study, they do not forbid student-athletes from using their physical skills to pursue monetary benefits from other sources, including sport related part-time jobs and participating commercial competitions. This attitude is partially influenced by the positive effects of social or working experiences on the post-graduation placement of student-athletes. Therefore, some student-athletes work as instructors in some sport clubs and participate commercial competitions as representatives of private entities.

The government financially supports student-athletes. Financial support of student-athletes in physical education institutes and physical education departments in universities can be classified into two categories: deduction on tuitions; and subsidies for food. According to the policies of the State Committee of Education, the deduction on tuitions applies to all college students in education-related majors, which include student-athletes in physical education, which is because teachers and faculty members in China are compensated relatively lower than those in other professions. Usually as half or one third as that of other majors, the tuition deduction they receive is used to attract students to pursue an education career. Food subsidies are offered by the SCPES to meet special needs of student-athletes on dietetic consumption. Once student-athletes are admitted, financial aid is awarded automatically and lasts until their graduation. In addition, student-athletes who have achieved national athlete titles are offered special allowances based on their titles. If the student-athletes can maintain their performance level and keep their titles valid, the special allowances are renewable.

For student-athletes who were members of national or provincial teams and achieved national or international records, administration of these student-athletes is lenient. Those outstanding athletes usually have a poor knowledge base, the result of having missed their best time for education. The colleges have realized that it is unrealistic to require them to meet the general academic minimum for common students. On one hand, to these student-athletes, attending college is just a means of obtaining a degree for their future or of obtaining a basic prerequisite to be a coach or

an official in a sports organization. On the other hand, universities and colleges are willing to recruit famous athletes for their image promotion; therefore, it can be assumed that education to these student-athletes is far from a serious endeavor.

From a commercial perspective, the student-athletes with high achievements can freely receive endorsements and take part in any commercial activities, such as commercial competitions and advertising activities. If they want to temporarily leave schools for commercial games, training in national teams, or international competition, they can apply for relief from their schools. The traditional values of Amateurism do not apply to these individuals. However, if the government needs their contributions, especially during international competitions, their self-interests have to yield to the national interests. Also, in China, the student-athletes are not subject to routine drug testing.

Administration of Student-Athletes – USA

In the United States, the NCAA and its membership institutions are involved in administration of student-athletes. The administration of the NCAA focuses on the administration of its member institutions and sets up rules for eligibility of student-athletes. The NCAA membership institutions have the authority over administration of academic performance and daily training of student-athletes. At the national level, the NCAA promulgates playing rules, establishes basic policy of eligibility standards, invokes sanctions on both institutions and players, and determines administration policy for intercollegiate sports (Manual of the National Collegiate Athletic Association, 1973). The NCAA takes charge of revenue allocation

for its member institutions to achieve a balanced development.

Based on amateurism and prohibiting professional participation, the NCAA legislates on various issues including participation in AAU events, World University Games (FISU), and the Olympic Games (Renick, 1974). In order to maintain their amateur status, student-athletes are strictly forbidden to pursue benefits from sources other than those that are provided by the school in which they are enrolled. Due to the exclusive authority of the NCAA over collegiate sports, student-athletes have very few rights and must conform to the NCAA existing system if they wish to compete (Renick, 1974). The only exception is that student governments have some control over the distribution of fee allocations for sports (Renick, 1974).

The NCAA does not directly intervene in the administration of the academic study of student-athletes. Although it nominally promotes academic excellence - by offering a couple of scholarships for student-athletes with extraordinary academic achievement-the NCAA does not mandate a balance between sports and academics for student-athletes. The NCAA is responsible for the prohibition of drug use in collegiate sports by its established drug-testing procedure. From a financial perspective, the NCAA is the representative of its membership institutions for the negotiation of television broadcasting.

According to the rule of each institution, the student-athletes are evaluated for their eligibility for athletic scholarships. To maintain their athletic scholarships, student-athletes have to show satisfactory sport performance and meet the minimum academic standard simultaneously. However, the comparatively low level knowledge

base of student-athletes and an intensive training schedule make meeting academic standards impossible for some student-athletes. Even though most institutions provide free tutoring services and academic assistance to student-athletes, the college graduation rate of student-athletes is still low. Based on available statistics, some 75 percent of those who had originally enrolled in professional programs ended up dropping out, selecting more manageable majors (Sack & Staurowsky, 1998).

Administration and Selection of the Olympic Athletes

The administration and selection of athletes for international competitions, especially the Olympic Games, is one of the most significant stages during the process of Olympic athlete cultivation. To select the best candidates for international competitions, both China and the United States have established procedures with the eligibility of participants and selection procedures. For administration of athletes, these two countries have adopted different approaches based on their social and political backgrounds.

Administration of the Olympic Athletes – China

Due to the strong motivation of the Chinese government to promote its image in the international arena, administration of athletes on national and provincial teams is as strict as it is for soldiers in the Chinese army. Valuing collectivism over individual freedom and humanity, the communist style of management promoted self-sacrifice and dedication to the nation. Partially determined by the limited resources in China, the centralized administrative manner is intended to guarantee the best possible training environment, coaching staff, nutrition supply, medical care, and fewer

interventions for these selected elite athletes.

In most provincial capitals, there are training bases with exclusive facilities for athletes on provincial teams. In Beijing, the national training centers belong to the National Training Bureau, and provide the best facilities in the country for athletes on national teams. Apart from facilities in the National Training Bureau, some national sports teams also own exclusive training bases in locations other than Beijing. Most of the training bases are completely closed to the public and media, and are used before important international competitions. For example, the Chinese Table-Tennis Team has a training base in Zhengding, a small city of the Hebei province; and the National Swimming Training Center is located in Xiamen, a beautiful coastal city in Southern China. Each training base has high-standard facilities with attached accommodation. Athletes have to take an assigned dormitory and consume whatever meals are provided; they must also strictly follow a daily training and rest schedule approved by the coaches or administrators. For most national teams, athletes train fulltime and all year round; for other teams, athletes are only assembled for training a couple of months every year. Usually, for some sports, in which China has established a leading position in international competitions, athletes must stay with the national teams year round to maintain their leading positions.

The appointment and selection of national coaches is conducted by the NSFs with the authorization of the SCPES. The coaches of most national teams are selected through a process of severe competition; some of them were former athletes with very successful experiences. Selected strictly based on their previous sport performances,

national team coaches are generally employed full time (Whitby, 1999). In recent years, the head coach positions have become open to applicants, while the final decision is still based on the preference of the NSFs. Assistant coaches are assigned by the SCPES or selected by the head coaches. In addition to assistant coaches, a couple of trainers are assigned to assist the head coach. Not only are they involved in the training of technique, coaches also control the daily activities of athletes. In most cases, the coaches of the national teams live with athletes during the training periods.

In each case a medical care team is assigned to each sport team. They are mainly composed of senior surgery doctors, massage technicians, and nutrition doctors. They coordinate with coaches to decide the intensity and longevity of training, nutrition, and convalescent plan for each athlete. In some sport teams, which are understaffed, a medical member may carry several responsibilities.

In the 1980s and the early 1990s, the athletes on provincial and national teams were given little freedom with their private life. As required by their coaches, they had to sacrifice many of their personal interests to achieve sport excellence. For example, during the time of their enlistments in national teams, athletes were not allowed to have boyfriends or girlfriends. Some coaches still firmly believe that dating has a negative influence on the training efficiency of athletes. Athletes are always forced to give up their holidays, thereby sacrificing recreation time with their families. Whether they can receive endorsements was determined by their coaches. On the one hand, athletes do not want to give up their sport opportunities; so, most choose to tolerate these unfair treatments and establish a stable mentor-disciple relationship with their

paternalistic coaches. On the other hand, Confucianism educates Chinese people to be conservative and tolerant of external pressures; therefore, athletes would rather accept the unfair treatment and dismiss any motivation to challenge it.

Since the second half of the 1990s, under the influence of Western ideologies, an increasing amount of attention has been paid to the human rights of athletes. People are willing to emphasize the sport performances rather than private life styles and the personal philosophy of athletes. Famous athletes have been given the authority and freedom to receive endorsements and to sign advertisement contracts. They can reveal their motivation of training for extrinsic values rather than for the glory of the nation. Even though athletes are still treated as civil servants and received monthly salary as before, their allowance, benefits and training subsidies have been increased gradually, allowing coaches to focus more on athlete training techniques.

Administration of Olympic Athletes – USA

Administration of Olympic athletes in the United States can be classified into categories by the sources of athlete selection: student-athletes in colleges and universities; athletes in sport clubs; and individual athletes. Due to the relatively lenient social environment and a low-level of governmental involvement in the United States, administration of athletes is not centrally organized except for those athletes on the national teams.

In the United States, student-athletes used to contribute to the administration and control of college sports in all phases (Renick, 1974). With the professionalization and commercialization of collegiate sports, and the increasing authority of the NCAA, the

administrative authority of athletes was gradually shifted to the NCAA and its member institutions. To partake in collegiate sports, student-athletes have to follow the regulations of the NCAA and their schools.

The NCAA is mainly responsible for student eligibility, entrance requirements, transfer rules, financial aid, scheduling of sport contests, and enforcement procedures regarding compliance to the NCAA conference standards (Handbook of the Pacific-8 Conference, 1972). Among these regulations, the rules of student transfer and financial aid have had the most significant influence on student-athletes in that it prevents student-athletes from school transfer. The NCAA also restricts the eligibility of student-athletes for all kinds of international competitions (National Collegiate Athletic Association, 2002).

The member institutions of the NCAA take charge of executing its regulations. Failure to execute the NCAA regulations may result in corresponding punishments. These institutions provide professional training staff, training facilities, accommodation, medical care, tuition scholarship, and tutoring services to student-athletes. Except for the aforementioned services that are required for sport training and academic study of student-athletes, the NCAA member institutions are not allowed to provide extra benefits and allowances in any way if they are to comply with the guidelines based on amateurism.

Within sport teams in schools and clubs, coaches usually set strict standards on the behavior of athletes, such as prohibiting smoking, drinking, maintaining late hours, wearing beards or long hair and delinquent behavior in the community (Schafer,

1969). Even though there are rules for athletes to follow in order to maintain their good standing, the disapproval of society as a whole does not dissuade them from behaving in such a manner. Apart from rigorous regulation, the mass media also plays a significant role to prevent athletes having deviant behaviors.

Under political pressure from the Eastern Bloc athletic movement following World War II, the American government began to adjust its policy on sports to facilitate Olympic athlete cultivation. Since the passage of the Amateur Sports Act, the USOC has been awarded the authority to establish national goals for amateur sports and to encourage attainment of those goals through centralized administration policies, which are mainly focused on sport excellence in the Olympic and Pan American Games (Chalip & Johnson, 1996). The USOC is given the power to determine which sports organization will serve as the national governing body for each Olympic and Pan American sport in the United States (Chalip & Johnson, 1996).

In national teams, the responsibility of athlete administration falls to the coaches. In general, coaches of the national teams are appointed by the NSFs and are responsible for preparation of the national teams (Thoma & Chalip, 1996). The second occasion is that the coaches are selected to coach the national team on the basis of their athletes' performance (Thoma & Chalip, 1996). The second scenario applies when the athletes are involved in private training either individually or as a team.

In today's high-technology world of sports, performance improvement, typically on the elite level, requires professional and monetary assistance (Nafziger, 1992). The

appealing benefits following sport excellence inspires more athletes to participate in training on an individual basis. For these athletes, who do not belong to any of the NCAA member institutes and sport organizations, they participate in intensive training for their own sakes. Most of these athletes hire coaching and medical staff by themselves, and rent sport facilities. They can freely accept endorsements and participate in commercial activities without the limitations associated with amateurism. Once they are selected for a national team, they have to follow the administration of the USOC by attending group camps.

Selection of Olympic Athletes – China

In China, the selection of athletes is largely determined by its hierarchical sport competition system. Since the middle of the 1980s, the SCPES has reformed its former competition system and replaced it with a system that is composed of three categories: national comprehensive games; national tournaments for each sport; and national games for each industry.

The national comprehensive games include the National Games, National Games for Youth, and the National City Games. All of the national comprehensive games take place every four years and are directly under the administration of the SCPES. In the National Games and the National City Games, each province or city dispatches its athletes. During the National Games for Youth, young athletes are classified into age groups while representing their province during competition. The final score is accumulated by each province or city and is used to judge the effort that each city or province exerts on athlete cultivation (Whitby, 1999). National tournaments for each

sport are regulated and controlled by the NSFs.

The national games for each industry are held by the sport committee in each industry. An example is the Sport Committee of National Petroleum. Since the late 1990s, most industries began to disengage from governmental control and have been transferred to state-owned companies or corporations. Along with this dramatic reformation of Chinese industries, the national games for each industry have gradually lost their influence.

Based on the performance of athletes in the National Comprehensive Games and tournaments that represent each sport, the head coaches can determine which athletes will be enrolled in the shortlist of candidates. Except for delivering athletes to national teams, provincial teams periodically recruit and cultivate young athletes for the next round selection. However, more and more coaches and researchers have begun to criticize the athlete selection process based on the competition outcomes at the National Games. Because the National Games are held in the middle of the four-year periods of the Olympic Games, it is difficult for most selected athletes to reach another performance peak two years after the National Games. Therefore, before the Olympic Games, an increasing number of national teams hold some small-scale competitions for athlete selection. These selection trials only involve the most elite candidates identified on coaches' shortlists. In these small scale competitions, the opinion of coaches and performance of athletes both contribute to the final decision. In the end, coaches will make the final decision based on the performance, stability, vulnerability of athletes, as well as the advantages and disadvantages of potential

opponents in an effort to maximize the possibility of success and thus the number of medals. Therefore, some athletes who perform best in the selection competition fail to be included on the national teams, which is against the Olympic principle of fair play, but complies with the Chinese ideology of sacrificing for the nation.

Selection of Olympic Athletes – USA

In the United States, selecting athletes for the Olympic Games or other international competitions is one of the major responsibilities of the NSFs. The procedure of athlete selection is determined by the NSFs and is approved by the USOC (Thoma & Chalip, 1996). Either the championships or the Olympic Trials, which usually take place shortly before the Olympic Games, are held by the NSFs to select the best athletes. Selections are open to all athletes who have reached certain standards of sport performance.

Sport performance is the only criterion for Olympic athlete selection. Based on the IOC's regulation concerning the number of participants for each country, the NSFs select the appropriate number of athletes and organize the national sport teams. Administrators and coaches do not have the authority to influence the process of Olympic athlete selection. The only exception to this rule is when an international event takes place at an unusual time in the United States competitive calendar (Thoma & Chalip, 1996). Athletes who do not belong to the NCAA institutions or athletic clubs participate in the championships or the Olympic Trials on their own and also need to follow the USOC regulations about athlete eligibility.

Funding of Training for the Olympic Games

Sources of funding for athlete training could be related to the motivations of the countries regarding elite sports, the economic situation of the country, the maturity of sports markets, the mass appeal of specific sports, the performance level of athletes in international competitions, and the fan bases of the sports. Due to the evident differences between China and the United States concerning the aforementioned factors, it should be expected that the funding sources for training would also be different.

Funding of Training for the Olympic Games – China

In order to meet the strong political interest of the Chinese government in sport excellence, a huge amount of funding has been allocated for athlete training each year. Prior to the 1990s, funding came primarily from income tax revenues. Earmarked for Olympic athlete cultivation, the funding was divided into several sections for spare-time sport schools, primary sport schools, and provincial and national sport teams. Most of the grass roots athletes, enrolled in primary sport schools, received accommodation and food for free plus tuition waivers. Based on the training hours they had each week, student-athletes were also awarded extra subsidies.

With further reformation and the development of a market economy, commercialization has gradually extended its influences to elite level sports in that the incomes of elite athletes have increased dramatically. At the same time, the Chinese government has instituted policies to promote all-around youth welfare and offer considerable advantages to students excelling in sports, arts, or music. To pursue

profits provided by the market economy and to take advantage of governmental policies, more and more youth started to participate in intensive sport training at a young age. Generally, they are financially supported by their family investments, which provide additional revenues for spare-time sport schools and local sport clubs.

The investment made by families in entry-level training has, in recent years, seen an increase, while the available government funding has decreased accordingly. The Chinese government established a series of policies to facilitate commercialization of grass roots sports, and tried to reduce its support to spare-time sport schools and lessen its involvement in administration of grass roots sports.

Even though the amount of government funding to grass roots athletes have been reduced, the amount of funding for elite athlete cultivation has never declined. Recently, the successful bid for the 2008 Olympic Summer Games has driven the government to dramatically increase its investment in elite sport training and facilities construction.

Further reformation and commercialization has also diversified the sources of funding for elite sports. At the beginning of the 1990s, the first professional soccer league was established under the leadership of the SCPES. In the following years, professional leagues for some other sports - including table-tennis, badminton, basketball, and volleyball - came into existence; some of them have already generated considerable profits for the league. Unlike professional leagues in the United States that are independent from governmental authority, professional leagues in China are under the control of the government. In most cases, the NSFs take charge of funding

and administration of professional leagues. All the commercial incomes are subject to the NSFs, with part of the revenues being designated to the development of Olympic sports. For instance, the National Soccer Federation allocates partial revenues from the Chinese Soccer League to female soccer teams and youth soccer teams.

Second, the SCPES and NSFs have started to utilize their authority over sport events to gain revenues for elite sports. For example, NSFs are responsible for the National Tournaments for each sport and authorize the endorsements for the national teams. The incomes from advertisements, along with all other kinds of endorsements, including the broadcasting of the games, are under the control of the NSFs. For the comprehensive national games, the SCPES directly administers financial incomes of the related commercial activities. In the meantime, the SCPES also takes charge of the National Sport Lottery Program and its revenues, which go to mass sports for facility construction, sports for people with disabilities, and elite Sports. The National Sport Lottery Program was founded at the end of the 1980s to increase funding for the 1990 Asian Games at Beijing. Due to the financial constraints of the Chinese government during the 1980s, it was mandatory for some employees in state owned corporations and government servants to buy the lottery. Since the middle of the 1990s, along with the development of Chinese economy, the mandatory characteristic of the National Sport Lottery Program has been relaxed. Currently, the revenue from the National Sport Lottery Program goes to maintenance of sport facilities, Olympic athlete cultivation, female sports, sports of people with disabilities, and youth sports.

Third, another major income source of the SCPES is facility rentals. As a result of

the centralized administration of sports before the Reformation and Open Door policies, the state owned all sports and recreation facilities which were for the exclusive use of sport events and athlete training. Before the advent of the policies, use of these facilities for purposes other than athlete training and large-scale events had to be approved by the Committee of Physical Education and Sports through lengthy formalities. With the growing influence of a market economy, the public's desire for sports and recreation has increased. To meet the needs of all people and to earn additional revenues, some state-owned facilities have started to offer low-rate charges. Part of this income goes to elite sports for facilities maintenance and allowances for facility administrators.

Since the structural reformation of the SCPES in 1998, the SCPES has withdrawn financial aid to sport teams on the provincial level, leaving provincial governments responsible for financing provincial teams. Still receiving governmental allocation, however, the SCPES mainly invests in the operation of national sport teams with a special emphasis on those national teams in which Chinese athletes have outstanding performances in international competitions. Based on their own financial situation, provincial governments now determine the extent of their allocation on sports. Only several prominent provincial teams, such as the track and field team of Liaoning Province and the gymnastic team of Hunan Province, receive national allocations directly from the state. Given this system, the exact amount of funding devoted by the Chinese government to sport training is difficult to calculate.

Despite its more diversified funding sources, Olympic athlete training in China

cannot be considered self-dependent as it continues to rely heavily on government funding. Without a mature mass market, some sports would encounter severe difficulties once the government withdraws its funding. To maintain its excellence in international competitions, the Chinese government has continued to fund athlete training.

Funding of Training for the Olympic Games – USA

The pursuit of sport excellence begins from youth and continues through elite levels, such as professional leagues, the Olympic Games, and World Championships (Thoma & Chalip, 1996). Thoma and Chalip (1996) argued that, at each level, the sources of financial support for sport training are different (See Figure 10). In general, the funding from the government is not substantial, which demonstrates the reluctance of the government to get involved in sports.

For some sports in which athletes must be trained at an early age to pursue elite performance, a substantial amount of money has been dedicated for intensive training. Sources of funding for youth training are diverse. In some cases, families provide a significant share of the monetary support, for the advanced training of their children. For example, young girls are enrolled and sent to local sport clubs for training in gymnastics, dancing, or figure-skating. For the public sport clubs, most of the facilities are constructed with the assistance of government funding, and some coaching staff work voluntarily. Another source of funding for youth sports is public educational organizations. Students can participate in intramural or extramural sport activities and training while at school. The funding for public educational services is

mainly derived from donations and the governmental tax-income.

Figure 10: Levels of Sport Development

Level	Governance	Primary Funding	Example
youth	local	Taxes, donations	Community Youth soccer league
Schools (primary and secondary)	Local, state	Taxes, boosters, ticket sales	High school basketball
*clubs	Within the club	Membership dues, fundraisers, corporate support	Swimming club
College/university	National organization, within the school, leagues affiliation	College general fund, boosters, ticket sales, licensing	Ohio State University
Professional leagues	private	TV, ticket sales, licensing	Chicago Bulls

*Clubs may involve athletes at any age and skill level.

Source: Thoma, J. E. & Chalip, L. (1996). *Sport governance in the global community*. Morgantown, West Virginia: Fitness Information Technology.

In colleges and universities, the funding for student-athletes comes mainly from schools, local governments, the NCAA, and other outside sources of donations and endorsements. Public institutions receive a considerable educational allocation from state governments. Part of this government funding could be used for the training of student-athletes. In the meantime, some public schools with successful performances in the NCAA basketball or football competitions have multiple financial resources, such as ticket sales, licensing, and alumni donations. Private schools, which are not granted funding from the government, can only receive financing from certain kinds of commercial investments, tuitions, and the allocations from the NCAA. Representing its member institutions, the NCAA conducts negotiations on

broadcasting rights and allocates revenues to its member institutions for sport cultivation. The United States funds the Olympic athletes at national levels primarily through private contributions (Thoma & Chalip, 1996). As Thoma and Chalip (1996) noted, sport clubs can raise funds through membership dues, fundraisers, and corporate support. Some outstanding athletes are supported by corporate endorsements and related commercial contracts.

The USOC is a not-for-profit organization created by Congress in an attempt to govern and promote the Olympic Movement in the United States. Even though it was created by Congress, government influence on the administration and the financial support of the USOC is rather limited. Without a formalized program of financial assistance from the government, the USOC is responsible for providing financial assistance to participants in the Olympics through other sources of income (See Figure 11) (*United States Olympic Committee v. Intelicense Corporation*). According to the early drafts of the Amateur Sports Act (in 1978), which was established under the political influence of the Soviet Union, the federal government appropriated \$30 million to the USOC, which, in turn, developed the Olympic Instant Lottery Program, a two-game package of instant scratch and win tickets that it made available to thirty-five state lotteries (Chalip & Johnson, 1996).

Instead of dedicating its efforts to the process of Olympic athlete cultivation, the USOC has always concentrated on athlete selection for the Olympic Games, providing short-term training for the national teams, and approving athletes' eligibilities. Running three national training centers in Colorado Springs, Colorado,

Lake Placid, New York, and Chula Vista, California, the USOC provides training facilities, compensation for training and medical staff, accommodation, and medical care for selected athletes in the short term.

Figure 11: The Income Sources of the USOC

Sources of USOC Revenues*	
42%	Corporate Participation Licensing
28%	Television Revenue
11%	Direct Mail
8%	Fund Raising
7%	Olympic Coins
4%	Olympic Spirit Sores
*Percentages vary somewhat annually; 1992 figures are reported there. (Source:USOC budget)	

From: Thoma, J. E. & Chalip, L. (1996). *Sport governance in the global community*. Morgantown, West Virginia: Fitness Information Technology.

Treatment of Female Sports

Since the conclusion of World War II, the number of the member countries to the Olympic movement has more than tripled. With the increasing competitiveness of Olympic competitions, most countries recognized the limited space for development of male sports and started to allocate more attention to female sports. The countries that produce outstanding female athletes first, could easily achieve a significant edge in international competition. Both China and the United States have achieved a great deal in the realm of female sports.

Treatment of Female Sports – China

The contribution of Chinese female athletes to the sport achievement of China in the Olympic Games can be recognized through their brilliant performances. First, they have made remarkable progress in the past two decades from virtual obscurity to

world champions and record breakers; second, they have been recognized for their dominant status compared with that of their male counterparts in international competitions (Riordan & Dong, 1996). In a traditional country with a profound Confucian influence, however, the achievement of Chinese female athletes is remarkable. Because of the special emphasis paid by the Chinese government on female sports, the number of female Olympic athletes is also strikingly high (See Figure 12).

Figure 12: Numbers of Male and Female Competitors in Olympic Teams, 1988: Countries with Established Sports Traditions

	Male	Female	% females
China	158	135	46
GDR	173	115	40
Belgium	39	26	40
Bulgaria	122	74	38
USA	388	224	37
GB	238	132	36
USSR	351	173	33
Denmark	62	26	30
Canada	265	117	31
FRG	288	119	29
Australia	216	79	27
France	225	82	27
Finland	76	27	26
Japan	213	75	26
Brazil	138	35	20
Italy	243	53	18
Spain	231	42	15

From: Riordan, J. & Dong, J. (1996). Chinese women and sport: Success, sexuality, and suspicion. *China quarterly*, 145, 130-152.

China lead all nations in 1988 with 46 percent of its Olympic squad comprised of female athletes; the nearest Asian state was Japan - which is also subject to the influence of Confucianism - in 14th place with 26 percent (Riordan & Dong, 1996).

No other developing nation had more than 10 percent of its Olympic squad comprised of female athletes (Riordan & Dong, 1996). Based on the high ratio of female athletes on the Chinese Olympic teams, the strong interests of the Chinese government in the development of female athletes can be clearly identified. Interestingly, the international community faces the dilemma of either criticizing the Chinese government's treatment of female sports as a means to meet its political goals, or expressing delight with the progress of feminist movements in China.

The emphasis on elite female sports is intended partly to win titles and achieve recognition in sports that are vulnerable to Chinese athletes or which hold little appeal for the masses - such as middle and long-distance running, swimming, diving, weightlifting, soccer, wrestling, volleyball, and table tennis. For this reason, the Chinese government does not conceal its position regarding female sports in terms of human and financial resources (Riordan & Dong, 1996). Along with more financial support for female sport teams, another unusual phenomenon in China is that some of the elite male athletes are giving up their training to work as trainers on female teams.

Even though the government has exerted great efforts on behalf of female sports, it has yet to established any regulation or law to protect the rights of all women who participate in or want to participate in sport. Due to the traditional bias of the Chinese public and the financial limitations of the government, millions of females are still isolated from sport activities. In some rural and poor areas, even basic facilities and equipment for physical education curriculum cannot be guaranteed. Governmental support of female athletes is only targeted at the elite level, intentionally ignoring the

needs of the common women in China. Even though the cultivation system is built on a weak mass base, it is still able to generate successful female athletes with the assistance of the talent identification mechanism. In the meantime, the high expectation of the government on female sports has directly contributed to the popularization of drug use and the severe exploitation of athletes. A weak legal system and traditional bias place female athletes in China in a severely disadvantaged position.

Along with the support of human and financial resources for sport training, the government has also established policies to provide athletes many benefits, including the opportunity to have urban residence, further education, allowances, accommodation, or even life-long employment in governmental organizations. These benefits are extremely attractive to rural-based athletes who have a slim chance to receive an education and find formal employment other than agricultural work. In this male dominated society, rural-based female athletes who can take advantage of these governmental policies have a stronger motivation to train toward success than their urban-based or male counterparts.

In addition to a higher probability of success for female athletes, another concern of the Chinese government is to demonstrate its stand on gender equity. Some successful female athletes have been awarded memberships in the People's Congress Council, the National Women Federation, and the COC, or have become officials of the SCPES. From successful athletes to officials that carry political and management responsibilities, this unique career path only exists in China. In terms of sport

participation and achievement, the treatment of women has undergone a significant improvement since the establishment of the People's Republic of China. Subjected to the deep influence of Communism, a significant change in female sports has resulted not from a gradual social development, but due to an unnatural political force. First, female athletes are not internally motivated to participate in sports due to negative influence of Chinese culture; second, women do not have the authority over female sports in that males take most coaching and administrative positions of female sports. Therefore, the advantages awarded by the communist government to female sports could be sacrificed anytime to meet its new political needs.

Treatment of Female Sports – USA

The development of female sports in the United States is closely related with its feminist movement as well as the changing political and economic environments. In the United States, sports for women, such as croquet, archery, and skating, were accepted in the middle of the nineteenth century (Paul, 1993). More recreational sports were adopted subsequently by students in female colleges. Some female athletes from the 19th century never gave up their efforts to pursue equity in sport participation and leadership in administration of female sports in sport organizations (Welch, 1993). With their unremitting struggle, female athletes were gradually accepted by society through their involvement in country club sports (Welch, 1993).

Because of a failure to draft healthy soldiers during World War I, physical training of youth in the armed services was promoted (Welch, 1993). Following the Great Depression, the government actively promoted sports and physical activities by

constructing sport facilities, which, in turn facilitated the participation of women in sports. Therefore, women's sports initially functioned in the United States as an application of political powers in the context of growing concerns with social hygiene and national defense (Chisholm, 1999).

In the 1960s, following a series of feminist movements, sporting women in the United States finally established the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW), a nongovernmental organization under a leadership of females (Morrison, 1993). Following World War II, American society started to place an even greater value on democracy and human rights, including the adoption of a more open attitude towards female sports and feminism (Gelb & Palley, 1979).

In 1972, Title IX was passed by Congress in an attempt to realize gender equity in education, which include sport participation. Since its passage, public colleges and universities have demonstrated significant progress in the promotion of female sports (VanderZwaag, 1984). VanderZwaag (1984), having cited a report by the National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs, argued that the involvement of intercollegiate sports had increased dramatically since the enactment of Title IX.

Although it granted females more freedom and equity in sport participation, Title IX did not contribute to the enhancement of female leadership (VanderZwaag, 1984). It is in the realm of leadership that female sports were damaged to a certain degree. Most coaching and administrative positions in female sports have shifted from females to males. Eventually, even the leadership role of the AIAW was usurped by the male dominated NCAA (VanderZwaag, 1984).

From the end of World War II to the end of the Cold War, the government paid more attention to the development of female sports because of a new concern about the communist threat from the Soviet Union (Turrini, 2001). Unlike their capitalist counterparts, female athletes in communist countries significantly contributed to the success of their nations in sports, which urged the American government to accelerate the development of its female sports (Turrini, 2001). For instance, the USA-USSR dual track meet series led to the increased performance of American female athletes in track and field. Even though the specter of the Cold War is no longer an abiding concern, there is still a perceived challenge posed by athletes from formerly communist countries. For example, media coverage of the 1996 Olympic Summer Games alleged that the success of the American women's gymnastics team was a defeat of the Russians, which suggest that a residual anti-communist bias is still evident (Chisholm, 1999).

The development of female sports has also facilitated a change in the public opinion about female sports. Most people consider sports as beneficial to cultivating physical perfection and nurturing fundamental civic virtues. In the meantime, commercialization of sports attaches more extrinsic values to the success of female sports, which, in turn, has lead to a series of social problems in this domain, including sexual harassment and doping. Influenced by commercialization, images of female athletes have to carry a sexual orientation to survive in this male-dominated society. With established laws and acts, the benefits and rights of female athletes could be protected to a higher degree than their Chinese counterparts. Even though female

sports has become an indispensable part of society, the comparatively low commercial value of female sports has forced female athletes to compromise their integrity in the face of professional necessity.

Drug Administration

The basic principles governing the work of the IOC Medical Commission are: (1) protection of the athlete's health; (2) defense of sport ethics; and (3) equality for all participants in competitions (Whitlock, 2000). Based on these principles, in order to participate in the Olympic Games, athletes have to be approved "clean" of prohibited substances. Under the guidance of the IOC, the National Olympic Committees (NOCs) have also established regulations to prevent doping, and put in place comprehensive procedures for drug testing. However, political and commercial influences have led athletes and the two governments to generate different attitudes towards drug use, which, in turn, have led to their different anti-doping measures.

Drug Administration – China

Prior to the 1980s, Chinese athletes and coaches did not have the chance to obtain performance-enhancing substances due to the political and economic isolation of China from the outside world. In the meantime, sport performance only carried political value under the slogan of "Friendship first, competition second," in that winners in sport competitions were awarded honorary titles instead of extrinsic values. Therefore, both the Chinese government and the athletes themselves did not have a strong motivation to use drugs.

Since the end of the 1970s, international exchanges between China and other

countries have dramatically increased. This trend has afforded China valuable expertise in sport training, including the use of performance-enhancing substances. Without the publication of reliable evidence, it is commonly believed that the first use of drugs by Chinese coaches and athletes was initiated by the coaching staff from the East German swimming team in the middle of the 1980s. It was during this same period that China began to actively participate in international sport competitions to prove its communist superiority. Along with the commercialization of sports, athletes started to receive considerable monetary benefits for their achievements. Therefore, both the government and individual athletes had great incentive to achieve success through doping.

In the late 1980s, Chinese athletes experienced a number of positive drug tests in international competitions (Editor Committee of Chinese Sport History, 1996). In 1989, under international pressure, the SCPES promulgated a series of anti-drug policies to deal with the increasing of drug use of Chinese athletes (Editor Committee of Chinese Sport History, 1996). However, without effective supervision, appropriate punishment, and an authorized organization to execute these policies, these anti-doping policies in China have been far from effective and efficient.

Influenced by the credo of “win at any cost” and “win to glorify the homeland,” the degree of drug abuse in China has multiplied since the late 1980s. Because of China’s disappointing performance - viewed by many as a lack of medal production in the 1988 Seoul Olympic Summer Games - unprecedented pressures from the government and the public further facilitated elite athletes to take drugs. From 1988 to

1991, nine Chinese athletes tested positive (Dong, 2003). After a female athlete was found positive in an out-of-competition drug test, carried out by the examiners of the International Amateur Athletics Federation in 1992, drug-positive test results dramatically increased (Dong, 2003). Embarrassed by continuous scandals surrounding Chinese sports, the Chinese government had to set up an Anti-Doping Commission in 1992 to take charge of related issues (Dong, 2003).

The Anti-Doping Commission established a series of rules and procedures for drug testing and started to conduct random tests at national sport tournaments and national comprehensive games, which includes the National Games, the National Games for Youth, and the National City Games. Due to the financial and technical limitations in China, testing is limited to the elite level; therefore, there is no effective control over drug use for youth and lower-level athletes. Also, the drug test procedures are perfunctory and informal; and the punishment to drug-positive athletes and their coaching staff is lenient. To deal with the criticism concerning the low effectiveness of its anti-doping measures, the SCPES periodically promotes media campaigns against drug use to demonstrate its anti-doping standpoint.

The public, on the one hand, does not have a thorough understanding of the negative influences of performance-enhancing substances to the health of athletes; on the other hand, due to a lack of education about ethics, the public holds an indulgent attitude toward test-positive athletes. Most people believe that drug usage is ubiquitous and, therefore, should be accepted. Others believe that athletes should take drugs because sport heroes carry a special responsibility to glorify the nation, an

obligation which transcends personal ethics. Driven by extrinsic values and social duty, and even knowing the negative effects of drugs, many athletes are willing to take dangerous substances and face the risk of being tested positive, thereby overriding the common sense of self-preservation (Mitchell & Yeates, 2000). Chinese female athletes in particular have become the major victims of doping, due to their severely disadvantaged status and the special political responsibilities they carry.

In 1997, the media exposed a former communist country for its systematic illegal use of performance-enhancing drugs with governmental support (Mitchell & Yeates, 2000). The existence of a government-supported system for drug use in China is also highly suspected by the international community; this argument is supported by the fact that the centrally administrated research laboratories in the Chinese Sport Science Academy and physical education institutes have all conducted research related to improvement of sport performance. There is no evidence, however, that drug use in China is systematically organized and financially assisted by the government.

Based on the personal experiences of the author at the Beijing University of Physical Education from 1996 to 2000, it is possible that drug use could be systematically organized with the acquiescence of the government, but it may not be under its direct control. In the meantime, the lenient regulations of drug administration have given athletes and coaching staff easy access to drugs. An enrolled student, who once held a “Master” title, has admitted that drug use was organized by her coach, and that all of her teammates also took drugs. Much like her, most female swimmers at the university have deep and hoarse voices as well as

masculine bodies, which are evidence of sustained doping since their adolescence.

To erase the stain on its image, the Chinese government has gradually changed its strategies with its anti-doping policies by using strict screening tests before each international competition. For instance, China informed Australian Olympic authorities that it cut 40 athletes and officials—10 percent of the total enrollment—from its national team for the Sydney Games one week prior to the beginning of the Games due to concerns over drug use (Reuters, 2004). Currently, the concentration of the SCPES is to prevent athletes who have tested positive from participating in international competitions.

Drug Administration – USA

Even though Olympic drug testing started in 1968, due to technological limitations, before 1983, drug testing and detection at all international competitions was very ineffective and unreliable (Voy, 1991). As the country with the most advanced level of technologies and biosciences, the United States is one of the major battlefields of the anti-doping movement. Nowadays, from the elite level to the grass-roots level, the United States has a comprehensive system featuring mature testing techniques to address the issue of drug use in sports. Due to the all pervasive commercialization of sports, the United States had to conduct anti-doping measures at every sport performance level.

Without reliable technology, the informal tests that were initially established by the USOC lacked the appropriate administration to standardize the testing procedures. Along with the further commercialization of amateur sports and increasing

attractiveness of extrinsic values, doping became popular in the United States. In the meantime, the drug-tests conducted by the USOC were also used for purposes other than those originally intended (Voy, 1991). Once the USOC discovered that athletes were using these tests to gauge when to stop taking banned substances so that it would clear their systems before an official test, the informal tests that the USOC used for educational purposes were concluded in early 1984 (Voy, 1991). To meet the needs of the selection of Olympic athletes, a group called the U.S. Anti-Doping Agency (USADA) was created to eliminate the practices of doping in sports (Drug education, 2004). Supported by the USOC, and responsible for drug testing for sport events as well as Out-of-Competition testing, the USADA also conducts research on prohibited substances to sharpen its drug-testing technology. Within the USADA, the Doping Control Program conducts drug testing for participants in the Olympic squads (Doping control officers, 2004).

Similar to the USOC, the NCAA has established policies and bylaws to prevent doping at the collegiate level. A comprehensive drug-testing procedure has been adopted to conduct drug tests for intercollegiate sports. The NCAA established a regulation for exceptions to the drug policy and asks its member institutions to keep medical records, including diagnoses, medical histories, and dosage for each student-athletes. The NCAA also reserves the right to check these medical records and conduct random testing of student-athletes. Breaking these regulations and bylaws may lead to forfeiture of eligibility to play in the NCAA. To meet the specific medical needs of schools and student-athletes, the Director of Sports Sciences for the NCAA

established Drug Free Sport (DFS) in 1999. In 2001, the DFS started the Dietary Supplement Resource Exchange Center to answer athletes' questions about dietary supplements and banned substances (The national center for drug free sport, 2004). The NCAA student-athletes have become one of the major client groups of the center.

On the grass-roots level, athletes also have to follow strict procedures for drug testing. Based on the drug testing policy of the Tippecanoe County School Corporation, student athletes in interscholastic sports have to sign a consent form agreeing to submit to urinalysis on a random basis (Anderson, 2001).

From the governmental perspective, there are 25 states that have enacted laws or developed strict regulations dealing with the prescription of anabolic-androgenic steroids (AAS) (Voy, 1991). Due to the strict government regulations concerning performance enhancing substances, drugs are almost inaccessible to most Americans; therefore, athletes are forced to find more dubious sources for their drugs, such as the black market (Voy, 1991).

Even though there are strict regulations governing drug use and drug testing itself, combined with severe punishment for athletes who test positive, some athletes still choose to take drugs at the risk of losing their eligibility and damaging their professional reputation. The primary drive to take drugs is for the monetary gains related to sport success, which is anathema to the principles of amateurism on both intercollegiate and Olympic levels. The unethical opinions of some coaches and family members also encourage athletes to explore related medical knowledge and take banned substances. This problem also extends to the highly commercialized state

of intercollegiate sports. As such, doping at the collegiate level has also become a concern.

Chapter VI

COMPARISON AND DISCUSSION

Due to the significantly different historical, political, cultural, and economic backgrounds between China and the United States, Olympic sports in the two countries have different origins, developmental courses, goals, and carry different social values. These contextual differences have shaped every step of the cultivation of Olympic athletes and continue to influence the development of the sport systems in the two countries.

Identification of Potential Athletes

Identification of potential athletes and providing appropriate follow-up training for these individuals is critical to the entire system of Olympic athlete cultivation. The determinant factors of accurate identification are the quality and quantity of candidate pools as well as the application of scientific identification techniques. Providing appropriate follow-up training to potential athletes ensures their further development. Sharing the same goal of successful Olympic athlete cultivation, China and the United States have chosen different strategies according to their needs.

As an ancient and conservative country under the influence of Confucianism for thousands of years, China accepted sports passively through military and cultural invasions. On the one hand, its profound Confucian background excludes sport excellence; on the other hand, the way in which modern sports was foisted upon Chinese society discouraged Chinese people from embracing sport. Even after the influence of Communism for roughly half a century, this ambivalence toward sports

still exists. In addition, the country's poor financial foundation does not allow every Chinese citizen to have access to sport. Therefore, the popularization of sport inevitably led to an unavoidable outcome: a poor candidate pool for athlete identification in China.

An immigrant country that adopted the Olympic spirit naturally from Europe and which was actively involved in the invention of new sport games, the United States highly valued sport excellence, so much so that sports has been integrated into the very fabric of its society. Its strong foundation for athleticism and its wealth have allowed most people to participate in sports out of self-interest and, therefore, produce a large and promising candidate pool. The United States is consequently exceeding, in terms of quality and quantity, China's candidate pool for athlete selection.

Valuing human rights and freedoms and not wanting to become involved in civilian affairs, the American government has adopted a detached attitude towards sports, thereby failing to establish an efficient system that can utilize systematic techniques to increase the accuracy of potential athlete identification and provide timely follow-up intensive training for identified individuals. Without strict and efficient governmental administration to optimize the cultivation system, the advantages of its candidate pool cannot be fully maximized. The systematic administration, authorized by the USOC, is only focused on the short-term training of national teams before the Olympic Games, a practice which does not contribute to the identification and cultivation of youth athletes. During the overall cultivation process, scientific selection techniques are generally ignored.

Contrary to that found in the United States, the Chinese government realized that offering the same sport opportunities to everyone will result in the most gifted ones not having enough resources to realize their potential. To minimize investment and maximize output, the object of Olympic athlete cultivation focuses on identifying potential athletes by providing them the best possible training experiences. Its huge population base as well as the adoption of scientific techniques in talent identification has contributed to the efficiency of Olympic athlete cultivation. The approach adopted by China has successfully negated the drawbacks of resource limitation. However, the identification process inevitably prevents some athletes who cannot demonstrate their talents at an appropriate time or those who cannot gain access to the identification system, from entering the formal training system.

For some sports that emphasize the early systematic training and recognition of individual traits of athletes, such as gymnastics and diving, the efficiency of the Chinese athlete cultivation system is higher than that of the United States. Because some sports, such as track and field, do not emphasize early intensive training, the superiority of the Chinese system is not evident. Popularization of sports in the United States allows more talented athletes to have access to training and the opportunity to demonstrate their excellence. Therefore, average persons in the United States have more opportunities to excel in sports that do not require early intensive training. This difference can be used to explain the phenomenon that athletes in the United States and China excel in different sports; it also suggests that American athletes are superior to their Chinese counterparts in more sports.

Due to its historical and political background, sport excellence in China has been used to promote the values of nation building by the Chinese government. Not only did the Chinese government recognize the political value of sports, but it has also successfully promoted this ideology to its people. Chinese people have generally regarded success in sport competition as a way to glorify the nation and refuse to accept failure in international sport competitions. Even though the society as a whole does not value sport excellence, an unnatural political influence has forced people to foster an attitude toward sport excellence, which is contrary to the common ideology of Chinese society.

Compared to the Chinese government, the United States government exerted little pressure on the development of sports. Originally using sport to release social pressures during the Great Depression, and reinforcing national defense during both World Wars, as well as confronting Soviet communism, the United States government has been involved in sport intermittently; its detached status from sports continues to this day. In addition, the government encourages commercialization at all levels by granting some sport organizations, such as the USOC for the Olympic sports and the NCAA for intercollegiate sports, a monopoly on sport administration. However, without direct administration by the government, its athlete identification process is not systematically organized.

Collegiate Sports

The disparity in situations and policies of collegiate sports between China and the United States was determined by various factors. From an economic perspective,

collegiate education carries different values in the two countries. In China, limited resources and a huge population base mean that collegiate education is exclusively for elite students. To keep the competition and the selection procedure feasible, the National Examination on academic excellence has been adopted and has become the only selection criterion. The emphasis on academic excellence has contributed to a neglect of physical excellence in Chinese education. Although higher education in China also promotes physical excellence, its effect on the physical excellence of students still cannot fulfill its original mission. Because collegiate education in China fully relies on governmental assistance, without sufficient allocation, collegiate sports cannot survive in China. Limited government support has led to insufficient sport facilities and a limited number of sport experts in colleges and universities, which, in turn, contribute to a failure to generate an intercollegiate sport network.

As the economic leader of the world, the United States is one of the foremost countries with a high ratio of college enrollment and high education quality. Considerable income from commercialized collegiate sports and government funding provide the financial prerequisite of fine facilities and sport expertise for college students. The comparatively lenient economic environment allows most students to fulfill their interests, especially in the sport domain. In addition to a relaxed environment, the schools and communities also promote sports and want to integrate sports as a part of the curriculum. Furthermore, profits generated by highly commercialized intercollegiate sport programs drive educational institutions to develop their sport programs by adopting athletic scholarships, which continuously

attract student-athletes to participate in collegiate sports. These measures have all contributed to the flourishing collegiate sport programs in the United States.

From a political perspective, higher education plays different roles in China and the United States. For China, collegiate education was intended to reinforce communist ideology for youth elites; therefore, a strict military model was adopted for student administration. In physical education institutes and physical education departments of universities, most student-athletes were cultivated to become physical educators. The responsibility carried by these young student-athletes was to exemplify good health for future generations, a strategy which is critical to maintain the continuity of communism in China. Today, with the waning influence of communism in China, this strict administrative policy has also weakened. Since China's involvement in globalization, the administration of student-athletes has become more lenient. Unlike the United States, in China, opportunities for collegiate education are awarded to student-athletes who have achieved valuable performances in international competitions to recognize their contribution to the nation. In this case, treated as compensation, collegiate education is utilized as a means to reach the political goals of the government. Thus, it can be argued that, collegiate sports in China were subject to and continue to be influenced by a political agenda.

In the United States, sports in colleges and universities developed voluntarily to meet social and recreational needs. Along with the development of capitalism in the United States, collegiate sports naturally adopted a commercialized approach to maintain its development. Seldom used to meet the political goals of the government,

collegiate sports has formed its own value system, mission, and a financial mechanism independent from politics. Thus, student-athletes in the United States have more freedom than their counterparts in China.

Because of external military and diplomatic pressures, physical education in the United States was promoted over sports in certain periods in matters of national defense. However, it did not influence the development of sports in the long-term. During the Cold War, collegiate sports, especially for females, was intentionally promoted to resist the mighty force of Soviet sports. In the meantime, female sports also became more acceptable to society. For the United States, political influence did not steer the direction of collegiate sports but allowed student athletes to choose a development approach independently.

Administration and Selection of Olympic Athletes

The different approaches in administration of athletes adopted by China and the United States are mainly attributed to their different political environments. The Chinese government fully supported Olympic athlete cultivation to realize its political goals and assigned specific governmental organizations to administrate the entire process. The SCPES, the central sovereign organization, has the responsibility of maximizing the possible number of Olympic medals. Most athletes in provincial and national teams have to maintain full-time intensive training year round and forfeit some basic human rights to achieve the mandate of sport excellence. In the meantime, the government encouraged athletes to sacrifice self-interests to glorify the nation, through which it rationalizes its administrative method and mitigates athletes'

reluctance to participate in the system. Following reformations in the economic domain, conflicts between athletes and the government regarding allocation of monetary benefits became exacerbated. To guarantee that athletes concentrate on training rather than considering how to obtain an increase in monetary benefits, the government has gradually eased its restraints on sport endorsements. Therefore, dealing with amateurism, elite athletes in China have more authority to involve in commercial activities than their counterparts in the United States.

Compared with its Chinese counterpart, which is responsible for the long-term training of athletes, the USOC is only responsible for athlete administration for a short period prior to the Olympic Games. Except for short-term training in national teams, funding for sport training in the United States is derived mainly from sport clubs, colleges, universities, or individuals. Therefore, the USOC is under much less financial pressure to support the training process and wields less authority over administration than the SCPEs in China. Financial support from the American government is very limited. Unlike the SCPEs, who uses its authority to control athletes, the USOC just sets up general regulations on the eligibility of athletes. Except for breaking regulations or laws, the behaviors of athletes are seldom interfered with by the USOC. To maintain amateurism, the USOC has established strict regulations over athletes' involvement in commercial activities.

During the process of selecting athletes for the Olympic Games, China and the United States demonstrated different philosophies based on their social and cultural backgrounds. In China, collectivism is valued in that the success of athletes is

attributed to the superiority of the nation as well as its social regime, while, the significance of individual efforts is promoted in the United States. Forced by the government, Chinese athletes generally hold the notion of “win at any cost,” including sacrifice of self-interests and rights. Therefore, sport performance in Olympic trials is not the only criterion for athlete selection. In most national teams, the final athlete rosters for the Olympics do not come out until the last moment prior to competitions. Head coaches balance the characteristics of all athletes and potential opponents, and select the athletes who can effectively defeat foreign opponents but not necessarily those with the best performances on the national team. Even though this approach violates Olympic principles, it is ethically accepted by most Chinese people.

In the United States, success in the Olympic Games is recognized as an incomparable honor for individual struggles. In the country that values freedom and individual heroism, sport excellence is not promoted to demonstrate its nation superiority as highly as it is in China. The USOC authorized the NSFs to select head coaches and set up national teams through formal Olympic trials. Based on the Olympic spirit, sport performance is the only and foremost criterion for athlete selection.

Funding of Training for the Olympic Games

Influenced by its involvement in globalization and capitalization of Chinese economy, the funding pattern for sport training in China starts to carry more features of that of the United States. Under the tremendous influence of communism since the late 1940s, China has followed the Soviet Union and accomplished reformations

leading to a state-owned economy. Having eliminated private business, the Chinese government fully took charge of industry, agriculture, services, and education, thereby preventing commercialization. Both were governmental functions that did not generate revenues; physical education and elite sports were, thus, financed by the Chinese government. Dominant in communist countries, the principle of egalitarianism strictly limited the degree to which individuals could accumulate private wealth, which, in turn, eradicated the possibility of support for elite sports from private sources. Therefore, elite sports could not survive without governmental support. During the 1980s, a market economy was adopted in China; the result saw private wealth start to increase. Subsequently, the government has encouraged individuals to support athlete cultivation of the grass-roots level to reduce financial pressure on the government.

On the one hand, the Chinese government hopes that sports could be independent from government support; on the other hand, for political reasons, the government does not want to give up its sport excellence in the Olympics. Based on the political needs of the government throughout different periods, financial support has fluctuated. Today the Chinese government is still trying to find a solution for funding athlete cultivation at the elite level, but is still unwilling to release its support of national sport teams.

In the United States, financial support for grass-roots athletes is independent from the government. Both collegiate and professional sports developed with limited government support. The market economy largely determined financial conditions for

sports. Even though the government contributed to sports through an educational allocation for public institutions and sport facilities, the direct and long-term financial support of Olympic sports is scant. Sport organizations, such as the NCAA and the USOC, have their own mechanisms to maintain their operations. Although these sport organizations mainly seek financial support through commercial approaches, they set strict regulations to prevent their athletes from seeking commercial support.

During the Cold War, the attitude of the United States government to sports changed. The solution to conflicts between the NCAA and the AAU demonstrated the intention of the government to improve Olympic performance through governmental behaviors. Even though it authorized the USOC the exclusive right to promote Olympic sports, the government did not completely follow the Soviet approach in terms of sport administration. Since the collapse of communism in East Europe and the Soviet Union, the United States government has not conducted further reformation within its Olympic administration system.

In spite of severe difficulties, the reformation of sport funding in China has followed the model of the United States. The reformation of the sport program in the United States was passively changed in response to pressures from the Soviet Union - a situation which remained the same since the end of the Cold War.

Treatment of Female Sports

In 1949, Communism abruptly replaced Confucianism and became the dominant ideology in China. Since the establishment of a Communist government, female sports have undergone a significant change. Having promoted gender equity to

comply with its communist ideology, the Communist government conducted reforms in every domain of society. One of the most significant changes was that married women were required to have formal full-time jobs just like men. Even though the reformation was only limited to women in state-owned companies, this new found financial independence offered Chinese women an unprecedented status that had never emerged before. Compared with feminist movements in the United States that gained rights for females gradually, women's liberation in China experienced a great leap because of direct government assistance. Gender equity in female sports provided the prerequisite to demonstrate the excellence of Chinese women to the international community, which, in turn, attracted more government investment in female sports for political purposes.

For the United States, gender equity was realized gradually as it was subject to two major influences. On the one hand, the advancement of society led people to be more open-minded about feminism; on the other, feminists never stopped their struggle for gender equity. Even though the government has established laws to give women the same opportunities in work and education as men, a considerable number of married women still choose to give up full-time jobs for various reasons. Free from external influences, women in the United States developed their interests in sports gradually. To meet their growing needs, they asked for more rights and opportunities until the government realized the needs of women and rationalized these needs through legislation.

When comparing the treatment of female athletes in China and the United States,

the development of female sports in the United States has been more natural than in China. Contrary to this, female sports in China are geared toward a quick success and instant benefits which do not comply with social needs. Also, the two countries have assigned different values on female sports: China focuses on the political values of female sports; the United States highlights both intrinsic and extrinsic values of individuals.

Drug Administration

Before the 1980s, within a highly commercialized environment, drug usage had become prevalent in the United States (Doping control officers, 2004). Contrary to this, isolated by most capitalist countries and some communist countries, China did not have a chance to utilize performance-enhancing substances. Once China opened its doors in the late 1970s, it quickly adopted drug use to achieve its success in the Olympic Games. With further reformation of the Chinese economy, more and more extrinsic values were attached to sport excellence, which provided athletes with the motivation to use drugs. Unlike their Chinese counterparts who carry political responsibilities, athletes in the United States pursue success mostly out of self-interest. Therefore, their motivation to use drugs is also less complicated than that of Chinese athletes.

Another factor that contributes to the difference between China and the United States on the drug use issue is a disparity in ethics, which is related to the cultural and social backgrounds of the two countries. The mainstream of the United States perceives doping as unethical, while, the Chinese culture values self-sacrifice to

pursue the benefits for the entire nation. Therefore, drug takers in China are not harshly criticized by the public; in the United States, drug takers are considered cheaters and, thus, lose all credibility.

Sport organizations in China and the United States also play different roles in the anti-doping movement. Because of international pressures, the Chinese government established the Anti-Doping Commission, which is currently used to screen out athletes who test positive for drugs before international competitions and exclusively for elite sports. In the United States, sport organizations on different performance levels all have established regulations regarding drug-test procedures and suitable punishments. For example, even at the collegiate and grass roots levels, the anti-doping measures are strictly conducted and enforced. Once the USOC found that its drug test organization was used by athletes to screen themselves before competitions, it was canceled immediately. Also, in China, there is no established regulation regarding drug testing procedures, and supervision of execution of punishments to athletes with positive test outcomes is ineffective. However, until now, there has been no evidence to show that doping is systematically organized and financed by the government. However, legislation to address the issues of drug abuse and drug prescription systems has not been established in China, thereby providing athletes access to drugs. In the United States, even though there is comprehensive legislation on drug prescription and drug abuse, the extrinsic values attached to success keep attracting athletes to take the risks through illegal channels.

Personal experiences of the author

The author of the thesis witnessed the dramatic reformations, as well as those that took place in the sport domain, in China since the end of the 1970s. The changing environment of China indicates that sport in China, as well as Olympic athlete cultivation in China, has had to follow an unstable approach. Based on the author's personal experiences, the reformation of sport in China is closely related with the political environment of China and the performance of Chinese athletes in the Olympic Games.

In terms of the political environment, inconsistency of governmental policies, as well as changing leaders, is one of the major reasons of the constant reformation of sport in China. A cursory constitution and frequent changes in governmental policies symbolize reformation in China. Even though some of the policies were only effectively executed in a short period, others may not be pursued due to their low feasibility. Hence, the frequent changes in governmental policies still imposed numerous minute modifications on sport in China. Under the leadership of Deng Xiaoping, the Chinese government established a strategy that adopted Olympic sports as a means to its political goal of demonstrating the superiority of communism. This position is supported by a resolution at the National Sports and Physical Education Conference in February 1979, which states that sports should serve the communist economy and diplomacy.

In 1980, China boycotted the Olympic Summer Games in Moscow, the first since its affiliation with the IOC, but took part in the 1984 Olympic Summer Games in Los

Angeles. This action demonstrated fierce conflicts among communist countries and the political position of China. It initiated the lengthy period during which China endeavored to win recognition from Western capitalist countries and to merge into a world that was becoming increasingly globalized.

Following the death of Deng Xiaoping in the late 1990s, the Chinese government under the leadership of Zhu Rongji attempted to further its reformation. Accordingly, governmental staff members were cut and the government's authority over civilian affairs was limited. Subject to these influences, the SCPES had to cut the number of its employees and seek financial support for Olympic athlete cultivation from sources other than governmental financial allocation. However, these financial restrictions imposed by the government on the SCPES were lifted immediately after the successful bid of the 2008 Summer Olympic Games. Reluctant to highlight its communist features, the Chinese government expects to utilize the 2008 Olympic Summer Games to demonstrate the successful transformation of China from a communist soldier to an indispensable player in globalization.

These changed political intentions were evident in the slogans of China on bidding for the 2000 and 2008 Olympic Summer Games. The bidding slogan for the 2000 Summer Olympic Games was "Kai Fang De Beijing Pan Ao Yun," which means "an open Beijing expects the Olympic Games." The term that the Chinese government wanted to emphasize was "open," This motto described the first step of the reformation of China - the Open Door policies – which implied the desire of China to make itself more appealing to the rest of the world. The bidding motto for the 2008

Olympic Summer Games is “Xin Beijing, Xin Ao Yun,” which means “new Beijing and the new Olympic Games,” The emphasis is on “new,” which declares that these changes are happening in an open environment with expectations for more global attention and acceptance. Obviously, China expects to throw off its communist label and merge into the mainstream through the assistance of the Olympic Games.

Political influences notwithstanding, the performances of Chinese athletes in Olympic Games have also exerted an influence on the reformation of sport in China. The successful debut of Chinese athletes after the execution of the Reformation and Open Door policies in the 1984 Olympic Summer Games at Los Angeles, reinforced the determination of the Chinese government to continue its investment in Olympic athlete cultivation. Perceived by the Chinese public as a fiasco, the poor performance of the Chinese Olympic team in the 1988 Olympic Summer Games at Seoul, brought fierce disputes within the Chinese public concerning the value of Olympic success to China, which, in turn, drove the government to conduct an internal reformation of the SCPEs to improve its organizational efficiency and to increase the investment in Olympic athlete cultivation. Since the 1990s, the excellent performance of Chinese athletes in the Olympic Summer Games has contributed to the supportive attitude of the public and the government towards Olympic athlete cultivation. On the other hand, the excellent performance of Chinese athletes in Olympic Games precipitated the resolution of the Chinese government to host Olympic Games.

Reluctant to reveal its expectations for an excellent sport performance, which carries a strong political significance, the Chinese government does not want to reveal

publicly the exact amount of investment in Olympic sports. Based on internal information from the SCPEs, following the successful bidding of the 2008 Beijing Olympic Summer Games, the Chinese government has allocated 0.2 billion RMB (around \$ 25 million US) each year on preparation for the 2008 Olympic Summer Games. In the meantime, another 0.16 billion RMB (around \$ 20 million US), from the National Sport Lottery Program, will be contributed to sport training on an elite level in an attempt to achieve a peak sport performance in the 2008 Olympic Summer Games. Even though it showed indifference to Olympic sports during the governmental restructuring of 1998, once again the Chinese government has demonstrated an intense enthusiasm for success in the Olympic Games, this time according to its new political strategy to embrace globalization.

Conclusion

Differences can be identified in each of the six major factors that contribute to the effectiveness and efficiency of the systems of Olympic athlete cultivation of China and the United States. When compared with the Olympic athlete cultivation system in China, the one in the United States has not experienced significant change since the 1970s. Following its communist rivals, the United States selected an independent organization to perform the central administrative responsibilities for Olympic sports, which is conducted by governmental organizations in communist countries. On the one hand, based on the impressive performances of American athletes, the current Olympic athlete cultivation system has proved efficient and effective, and suitable for the United States; on the other hand, the relative stability of American society does

not bring any pressure to reform its current system.

Since China's participation in globalization as well as its inside reformation, some significant communist features of China have been gradually eliminated. The entire Chinese society is undergoing dramatic changes in economic, political, ideological, and social domains. Because the Chinese government embraced gradualism for its reformation strategy, the changes occurring in Chinese society are still only halfway from the final goal of its reformation.

As well as reformation in other domains, the reformation in sports has not yet been fully realized. Trying to follow the model adopted by capitalist countries, the Chinese government has successfully released its control in certain sections of its athlete cultivation system, especially those that do not severely influence its excellent performances in the Olympic Games, including drug administration, funding for training of Olympic athletes and administration of Olympic athletes. In this respect, the similarity between China and the United States is more evident. However, reformation in some other areas, such as funding for sport training, administration of athletes, and drug administration, may jeopardize the leading performance of Chinese athletes. In this case, taking its political concerns into account, the Chinese government is reluctant to further its reformation in these areas to maintain the high effectiveness of its Olympic athlete cultivation system. Sport in China is a result of the dilemma of whether to embrace globalization under the influence of capitalism or to maintain its identity. With China's further reformation, changes in other domains will definitely exert corresponding influences on its Olympic athlete cultivation

system, thus providing prerequisites for further reformation in the sport realm.

This thesis divides the Olympic athlete cultivation process into six sections, and conducts a comparison between China and the United States of America on each of these sections. Future research could explore other factors that may contribute to the process of athlete cultivation, such as compensation of athletes, the socioeconomic status of athletes, and the mechanism of sport volunteers within each country. Following these recommendations will enrich the understanding of the sport system in China.

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APPENDIX

Timeline

Year	The People's Republic of China	The United States of America
1879		● Establishment of the National Association of Amateur Athletes of America
1888		● Establishment of the American Athletic Union
1905		● Establishment of the Intercollegiate Athletic Association
1910		● The Intercollegiate Athletic Association was renamed to the National Collegiate Athletic Association
1924	● Establishment of the China National Amateur Athletic Federation	
1929		● Start of the Great Depression
1927	● Establishment of the National Physical Education and Sports Committee	
1932	● China send its first athlete to Olympic Games in Los Angeles	
1937	● China started to involve in an eight-year war with Japan	
1946		● Passage of the Sanity Code
1949	● Establishment of the People's Republic of China	
1952	● Establishment of the Central Physical Education and Sports Committee of the People's Government	
1956		● Establishment of the President's Council on Physical Fitness
1965	● Establishment of the system of spare-time sport schools	
1966	● Beginning of ten-year crisis of "Cultural Revolution"	
1972		● Passage of Title IX
1974		● Passage of Amateur Athletic Act gave USOC the authority amateur

sports

- 1978 ● Beginning of the Reformation and Open Door policies
- 1980 ● Boycotted the Olympic Summer Games in Moscow
- 1984 ● The first debut of the People's Republic of China in Olympic Games
- 1989 ● The Tiananmen Affair
- 1990 ● Hosted Asian Games
- 1995 ● Establishment of Professional Soccer League
- 1998 ● Structural reformation of the State Committee on Physical Education and Sports
- 2001 ● Won the Beijing 2008 Olympic Summer Games
- Boycotted the Olympic Summer Games in Moscow
- Successfully commercialized Olympic Games

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